The Nation.

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The Week.

The President may well take a personal pride in Monday's naval review, for it is largely due to his teachings that the fleet assembled was the most powerful ever gathered for Presidential inspection. Lincoln's fleets were, for their period, as formidable and much larger, but there was no opportunity to have them parade for his pleasure. When the civil war was over, the ships were rapidly dispersed; the ironclads were laid up or sold to foreign nations. Within a few years our coasts were patrolled only by the graceful wooden ships-of-war of the Kearsarge type, until, in the late eighties, the white squadron began to appear. Those Americans who believe, like Mr. Roosevelt, in the Big Stick, will get profound satisfaction out of Monday's proceedings; the ships are admittedly splendid vessels, officered by men of skill and ability, coupled with Yankee ingenuity and determination to succeed. They have been inspired of late years by their successes in the war with Spain, Mr. Roosevelt's incessant preaching of the gospel of "preparedness," and the readiness of Congress to vote large appropriations and increase the naval force from about 8,000 to 33,000 men. For ourselves, we hope that this review marks the climax of our naval war-strength; that henceforward our navy will begin to decline in size by reason of faith in our coast defences, a more pacific policy in Washington, in accord with Secretary Root's South American speeches, and a realization that the duty of the United States is not in the direction of war and great armaments, but of humanity and peace.

The agitation for a reorganization of the Democratic National Committee is based on a clear perception of the present peril of the party. Four of the members of the executive committee, for example, are not even members of the National Committee; they are William F. Sheehan of New York, chairman; August Belmont of New York, James Smith, jr., of New Jersey, and Senator Thomas S. Martin of Virginia, while the remaining three are James M. Guffey of Pennsylvania, John R. McLean of Ohio, and Timothy E. Ryan of Wisconsin. Not one of these men is a truly national figure; several of them, including Mr. Belmont, by reason of their close affiliations with unpopular corporations, render the whole committee, in the existing state of public opinion, liable to effective attacks. Not only is the membership of the executive committee unfortunate, but Thomas Taggart, chairman of the National Committee, is himself alone enough to discredit the whole organization. He was never big enough for the place, even when he was at the height of his Indiana successes. Throughout the Parker campaign, he demonstrated his total unfitness. More recently the revelations as to the gambling carried on at his French Lick and West Baden Hotels and his attempt to outwit the State of Indiana in its efforts to close up these resorts, have earned him the contempt of honest men the country over. The Democratic press is everywhere demanding his resignation; if the National Committee were really responsive to the feelings of the great mass of Democratic voters, Mr. Taggart could not hold his place a day.

If only as a pledge of better relations with Spain, the reciprocity agreement recently signed at San Sebastian is very welcome. It affects mainly wine, spirits, and their by-products, and admits also American manufacturers to Spain under the minimum tariff. The agreement represents the very small latitude allowed the President by the Dingley act. The question is pertinent if the President may by proclamation reduce the tariff on argols, cream of tartar, painting, statuary, wines and spirits, and no cataclysmic effect upon the national prosperity be observable, why might he not, Congress and the late Mr. Dingley permitting, have knocked a quarter off the iron and steel schedules? Would a similar dealing with the wool duties destroy confidence and bring us to universal bankruptcy? Or, again, if duties may be substantially diminished by Presidential proclamation, and no evil ensue, might they not be modified as much by Congress without precipitating disaster? Of course, we are aware of the awful consequences of "opening the tariff," and yet the evident harmlessness of these small revisions should give courage to all Republicans who sincerely wish better tariff conditions. The trouble is that the party doesn't really want courage; it wants a continuance of the panic fear that makes it impossible to do anything but stand pat with quaking knees.

Such a situation as exists to-day in the New York money market is a disgrace to the community. A 30 per cent. rate for Stock Exchange demand loans, such as prevailed in Wall Street Tuesday, is bad enough in itself; it throws an atmosphere of absurdity around the assertion, lately popular in that quarter, that New York was fast becoming the "money centre" of the world. Indeed, when one takes into account the immediate and perfectly well-known cause for the violent stringency, one is tempted to ask whether New York's "high finance" is on a much higher plane to-day than it was when Fisk and Gould made history in railway management and the gold market. Three or four weeks ago it was evident to all experienced men that the New York money market was under an abnormal strain, and that only the utmost restraint in taxing loan resources could avoid a serious situation. Unprecedentedly active trade was itself absorbing, through natural channels, an exceptionally large part of the country's free capital. Widespread real estate speculation, always a heavy drain on available resources, had locked up another part. The New York bank position, disclosed by its official statements, was the weakest with which those institutions had entered the active autumn season since the panic of 1893. This was the moment chosen by men in positions of great responsibility to start a stock speculation of a wildness and violence rarely equalled since the mad days of April, 1901. The effect on the money market was inevitable. If the only upshot of this discreditable business were to be the "squeezing" of stock speculators by a 30 or 50 or 100 per cent. money rate, the episode might be dismissed with contempt. Unfortunately, however, the interests at stake are of far greater concern than speculating railway directors or Stock Exchange borrowers. Using, as the promoters of this speculation apparently have done, all available credits, both in New York and London, they have visibly depleted the resources on which legitimate industry was relying—the evidence for which is that merchants' paper also has to pay a higher rate to-day than it has paid at this time of year since 1893.

Addressing the American Bar Association at St. Paul last week, Judge Alton B. Parker deprecated the present flux of special legislation. He called attention to the fact that most *ad hoc* laws were simply a confession that the general statutes applicable in the premises had not been enforced. Frequently the demand for new laws represents only hysterical clamor for a victim. Such legislation corresponds merely to a vague desire to do something exemplary, though existing statutes may provide an adequate remedy. This hand-to-mouth view of the legislative function produces annually in the United States an average of something like 15,000 laws, mostly of a special character. These merely complicate the already difficult task of the courts, and obscure underly-

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ing principles of jurisprudence. A remedy for the present hurly-burly implies a change of mind among our lawmakers. Until they approach their duties with something like the judicial spirit, we shall presumably continue to load the legislative blunderbuss with all the legal shards and scraps in sight—in the hope that the explosion may bring somebody down. But Judge Parker finds one available resource in that practice of the British Parliament by which all bills are referred to an expert jurist. This official not only makes himself responsible for the verbal form of the bill, but also reports on its relation to previous legislation. Evidently, a scrutiny of this sort would prove that a large proportion of bills in Congress and the State legislatures are superfluous or actually repugnant to existing laws.

The first business brought before the Interstate Commerce Commission under the new law consists chiefly of old grievances for which shippers were unable to secure relief formerly, and which they bring up again in the hope that the more powerful body may put an end to their difficulties. Of such a nature is the eighteen-year-old complaint of the city of Spokane, Wash., which, although hundreds of miles from the coast, pays a higher rate on shipments from the East than Seattle. The new Rate Commission which the State of Washington created last year has power to lower the rate from Seattle to Spokane—the imaginary "back haul"—but so long as the railroads add this intra-State charge to the inter-State rate from Seattle to the East, the place can never stand on an equality with its coast neighbors. The Spokane case involves the whole principle of water competition, just as other complaints recently filed take in the other fundamental problems of rate-making. But the list of grievances thus far gives little confirmation to the prediction that every through rate would be complained of, and that the Commission would ultimately be forced into a general revision of railroad tariffs.

The most violent negrophobe cannot find fault with Booker T. Washington's address before the Negro Business Men's League in Atlanta last week. It must have taken some courage to hold the meeting in that city just now, not only because of Hoke Smith's success in his campaign to disfranchise the colored people, but because of the bitter feeling aroused by five attacks within five weeks upon white women by colored criminals. To this must be added the criminals. Mr. Washington's emphatic and earnest address, largely devoted to the question of negro crime, is a restatement of his previous position. He sees clearly that the negro criminal is the greatest danger confronting his race, and he calls upon all decent people of his color to aid in the punishment of the offenders. But Mr. Washington goes further, pointing out to the whites that they owe it to the colored people to extend to them protection of the law. A recent lynching by a mob of negroes gives edge to his contention that every man, white or black, who takes the law into his own hands is insulting the executive, the lawmaking, and judicial powers of the state.

The Metropolitan Museum has added to its small collection of American sculpture a number of little bronzes by such able contemporaries as Gutzon Borglum, Anna W. Hyatt, A. P. Proctor, Frederick S. Roth, Bessie Potter Vonnoh, and the late Paul Nocquet. This is the earnest, one may infer, of a more liberal and systematic attention to American art. The pieces are mostly of cabinet size, and, frankly, we think this is for Museum purposes a distinct merit. To begin with, the best of our contemporary sculpture, with rare exceptions, is of this sort. Few of our sculptors, even of those who habitually work on a heroic scale, have monumental quality. Moreover, these little exhibits are of a very available sort; they require little space, they quarrel neither with each other nor with the general decorative effect of a gallery; they can readily be withdrawn or stored if a subsequent taste should find them below museum standards. As for the bigger sort of contemporary statuary, one almost dreads to see it come into a museum. It is costly to keep it, and apparently almost impossible to get rid of it when once exhibited. Besides, a great sculptural composition should be, and usually is, made for a given site or position, and accordingly loses something in the artificial lighting and surroundings of a gallery. In building up the contemporary display of American sculpture we are glad that the Museum committee has given the little pieces the preference.

The overwhelming victory of the American boats in the *Sonderklasse* race off Marblehead on Monday seems to be primarily a triumph for our builders and riggers. No doubt, such seamanship as that of Charles Francis Adams, 2d, the skipper of the winning boat Auk, counted for much, but, in an open course and a half gale, that would not explain a lead of more than ten minutes in fifteen miles. In spite of the beating they have had, the German visitors should find comfort in the fact that no one of the three American boats has been clearly the best in the trials. Slightly varying conditions of wind and water make a great difference with these sensitive craft, and though the outlook for the visitors cannot be said to be bright, they may fairly hope to make a better showing. The series will afford splendid sport, but the boats are so much of a sort—being all fin-keel scows with deep lead—that the races will give no new lesson as to design. That, after all, is a minor matter; the important thing is the opening of cordial relations between American and German sportsmen. From this point of view one is very glad that the North Shore has been chosen as the scene of the international contest. There is no place where the German skippers could get a truer or more favorable impression of American yachtsmen; no place, we believe, where they would receive a hospitality more generous and more discreet.

A combination of concession and recession has occasionally in the past diverted revolutionary activity into peaceful channels; in the case of Russia the formula is probably being applied too late. The scheme for the distribution of the appanage lands would presumably have been welcomed two years ago; to-day it appears to make little impression. Similarly, before the closing of the universities and higher schools had scattered the natural leaders of revolt throughout the Empire, the policy of proceeding against agrarian agitators through the police might have been effective; to-day wholesale arrests in the provinces will do about as much to avert revolution as a popgun to frighten wolves on the steppes. For a manly attitude towards a desperate undertaking Premier Stolypin deserves all credit. But week by week it becomes more evident that without the Duma nothing can be done. From hated hands favors may indeed be received, but never with contentment; and Russia apparently hates the forces that move the hands of the Czar. But no remedy except that provided by the national assembly is likely even to have a trial. The time has passed when concession can satisfy or recession terrify. It is not even certain that a travailling nation would obey its own parliament; yet that still appears to offer a chance for an orderly solution. Every other way lies anarchy.

The Prussian Minister of the Interior, Gen. von Podbielski, has not yet been forced out of his office by the colonial scandals in which he is involved, but he will be retired, it is understood, as soon as the case of Major Fischer, now under arrest for corruption, is investigated. The Chancellor, Prince von Bülow, has been compelled to return to Berlin to supervise the official housecleaning. The head of the Colonial Office, Prince Hohenlohe, has been accused of taking two salaries; and the revelations as to monopolies granted by his office have now involved the Wörmann steamship line. This com-

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pany had invested only about $250,000 at Swakopmund in boats, lighters, and other plant; yet it made in one year $325,000 out of the Government merely for landing supplies transported to Southwest Africa in the Government's own ships. Although only about 4,000 tons of supplies could be discharged in Swakopmund every week, the Colonial Office had at times as many as seven or eight steamers in port waiting to unload their cargoes, of which the troops were often in great need. In consequence of this delay the Government had to pay the Wörmanns large sums. Thus the company obtained from the Government a revenue from three different sources: freight rates, landing costs, and penalties for the delayed ships—the latter charge is said to amount to $750,000 alone. Yet it never occurred to any one in the Colonial Office to hire ships of other lines, to get English vessels, or to send out ships at such intervals that there would be no congestion at their destination.

The present condition of Spanish agriculture is interestingly set forth in the *Temps* by M. de Contenson, French consular agent at Huesca. What the farmer of Spain needs is capital and water. The former requirement is universal and not subject to especial remedy; the second need the State might do much to meet. Travellers over the great central plateau are struck by the arid nature of the country. Water there is in abundance; its ravages are shown in torrent beds and riven hillsides; but, owing to the reckless deforestation of the land in old times, most of it goes to waste. With a fair rainfall and mountain snows to count upon, the storage and distribution of water through irrigation ditches is a simple problem of engineering; the difficulty is economic. M. de Contenson shows that the suspicious Spanish farmer distrusts the irrigation companies. He would rather be sure of his present pitiful gains than seek a larger profit which must be shared with a third party. The result of this feeling, and of the very small return per acre in arid cultivation, has been totally to eliminate the small farmer in many regions. The remedy suggested is such taxation of half-improved farm lands as will force the great proprietors to sell or irrigate their properties. Probably a reform must come through the great landowners; for the peasant, who now sells his olives on the trees for want of cash to have them milled, will be averse to paying a water rate. On the other hand, one can hardly doubt that the ability which has created the great manufacturing interests of Catalonia and Andalusia will sooner or later direct its attention to the waiting soil.

A report of socialistic progress among the Italian *carbinieri* is disconcerting enough to admirers of that *corps d'élite*. For ordinary police officers to organize and strike is bad enough, but any disloyalty in this superb mounted infantry would soon affect the internal peace of Italy. These sturdy Piedmontese who patrol the country roads in pairs are to the average Italian the very embodiment of law and order. They are a terror to evildoers and a protection to all inoffensive wayfarers. If they are infected by the virus of Socialism, it is hard to see what class can hope to be exempt. Imagine Paris with the Republican Guard on strike; that would be Italy with the *carbinieri* disaffected. One must hope that the alarmist reports are greatly exaggerated, and that the honest faces under the three-cornered hats still look for orders to the Royal House of Savoy, and not to the walking delegates.

The vast differences between labor-unionism in England and the United States are emphasized afresh by the opening meeting in Liverpool last Saturday of the thirty-ninth annual Trades-Union Congress of Great Britain. Several of the delegates are members of the House of Commons, men of national reputation and wide experience in affairs. One of the proposals of the British Congress is that "technical education be an essential part of every child's education, and secured by such an extension of the scholarship system as will place a maintenance scholarship within the reach of every child." This contrasts sharply with the attitude of trades unions which in this country discourage by every possible means technical or trades schools as a supposed menace to organized labor. Some of the proposals of the British Congress, such as old-age pensions, are as radical as unionists in America could wish; but the greater part of the discussions show that the participants are working for the welfare of the nation, and not, like labor "leaders" in the United States, for strengthening the unions by use of the boycott, suppression of apprentices, burdensome levies, and the like. Samuel Gompers and his coterie may well study this English Congress.

Australia threatens to become protectionist with a vengeance. Premier Deakin asks not only that the tariff be put on a virtually prohibitive basis, but that he be granted power to suspend any importation of goods to be sold at less than the local market rates. Under such a law Australian manufacturers might combine to raise prices with impunity, for the competitive article from oversea must always be offered at even price, on pain of exclusion from Australian ports. The sentiment which the Premier voices is for keeping out all manufactures, British or otherwise. Bills to this effect, it is believed, may pass the Parliament of the Commonwealth at the approaching session. In the farming and grazing districts, which will be cruelly mulcted by the proposed tariff, there is naturally much discontent, but so far it has not crystallized into an effective opposition. The manufacturing interests retain control of the political machine. Such an Australian adventure in protectionism would be a death-blow to the moribund cause of Imperial reciprocity. Canada, too, is likely to revise her tariffs upwards without further concessions to Great Britain. One must regret the general reactionary drift towards mediæval notions of trade and revenue, but there is at least a certain poetical justice in the undoing of Mr. Chamberlain and his designs, by the very spirits he has conjured from the deeps of national selfishness.

The cottage in which, according to tradition, John Bunyan was born, at Elstow, is reported to be much dilapidated, and a writer to a London paper suggests that it be purchased by the nation and preserved. The building is a typical little English cottage, a picture of which is printed in some lives of Bunyan. In a memoir of Bunyan written as long ago as 1839 the Rev. Henry Stebbing complained that "the present occupants seem no more interested about Bunyan than are any other of the villagers; they have no story to tell, no fancy or vision to describe with reverent look; and the stranger is allowed to leave the cottage without having received the least encouragement to guess in which room Bunyan was born, or on which side of the fire he used to sit, or whether there be a tree of any kind reported to be planted by his hand." This indifference to the fame of the preacher-tinker is, we fear, spreading. "Pilgrim's Progress" is not thumbed by the children of to-day so diligently as by those of a generation or two ago. In many families there is less distinct religious life, and the old line between "Sunday" reading and that which is appropriate for week days is rapidly fading. In this liberal era the refined humor of "Buster Brown" and the "Katzenjammer Kids" is left to do the work once performed by Christian, Great-heart, and Mr. Valiant-for-Truth. If ever we fall back into that stage of unsophisticated piety which makes it seem worth while for a man to glance at the pages of a good book at least once a week, "Pilgrim's Progress" must resume its primacy in Sunday reading. In the meantime many persons with memory of happy Sunday afternoons spent on the road to the Celestial City must be ready to subscribe for the preservation of Bunyan's birthplace.

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MR. BRYAN, 1896-1906.

Everybody knows what was thought of Mr. Bryan when he came to New York in 1896. What has happened to make the great difference in his reception last Thursday? What changes in the political world, or in him, account for it? Wherein is he the same as he was ten years ago, and wherein altered?

Mr. Bryan is the same in being a very taking popular orator. He was that in 1896. His cause was bad, but his speaking was plausible and even persuasive. He probably can never reach the highest flights or satisfy the most exacting taste; but as a man able to appeal broadly to the masses, to impress his hearers with his own earnestness and honesty, and to clothe his thoughts in simple and direct English, it would be hard to name his equal. Popular oratory of that kind is still a political power. Unchanged, except as years have heightened it, is also Mr. Bryan's ability to identify himself with the aspirations and strivings of the vast working and middle classes. Many in the East laugh at his being called "The Great Commoner," but the phrase represents a tremendous political fact. Mr. Bryan is held by the rank and file of his party, and in general by the common people, in an admiring and affectionate regard which recalls the fondest traditions of Henry Clay. Time and again has Mr. Bryan demonstrated his power. Never was it more conspicuous than in 1904, the year of the seeming triumph of his opponents within the Democratic party. They had the Convention at St. Louis, yet he was its dominating figure. And his campaigning later was, as Judge Parker himself acknowledged, the most vitalizing that was done. No one can keep at all in touch with men—can see Mr. Bryan's portrait still kept in the home of the workingman alongside that of the Pope—and not have the truth beaten in upon him that this self-made man is preëminently a man of the people, knowing instinctively the way to their hearts.

While admitting these great qualities in Mr. Bryan, with his exceedingly amiable and even engaging personality, it remains for prudent men to ask if there is any sign that he has mastered his notable defects. It is confidently said that he has "grown." But we must await the evidence that he has grown away from the ingrained habit of his mind. It was that which frightened staid citizens in 1896 and 1900? What we mean is Mr. Bryan's way of catching up some issue which is clamorous and seems popular, not taking time to look into it thoroughly, but committing himself on it deeply and pressing it in vehement and even inflammatory speech. That was the essential vice of his attitude on the silver question; and it is a vice which he exhibited in his speech last week in Madison Square Garden. There he gave an exhibition both of his skill as an orator and of his defects as a statesman.

If on that occasion his aim was to drive hard at his political opponents, while making it difficult for them to strike back at him effectively, he had much success. The reason is that he has an almost invincible argument *ex concessis*. "You admit," he says, "that I was right in demanding, when your party was silent about it, Government rate-making on the railroads. You admit that I was right in calling for a Federal license for corporations doing an interstate business. That plan has since been urged by your own Administration. You admit that I was right in advocating the stern application of the full power of the Government to the restraint of Trusts. You admit that I was right when I cried, 'Plutocracy, there is the enemy.' Your own President has been forced to advocate the 'curbing' of great wealth. But if all these policies are the true ones for the country, I and my party, not you and yours, are the fit agents to execute them. Look at the way your well-meaning President is hampered in his radicalism! The corporations and the interests, with their grip upon the Republican party, are too powerful for him. Let the people give the Democrats power, and, with myself in the White House, the country will get the Simon-pure and thoroughgoing radicalism of which Republicans can give only meagre and disappointing imitations." That argument is extremely awkward to answer.

But as a constructive statesman the new Bryan has the chief fault of the old. He is provocatory, not to say inflammatory, but wholly vague. He rouses passions without directing them. He puts forth a tremendous scheme, without showing any sign of having thought it through, and without indicating a single detail. He is in a great state of excitement about plutocracy, but just how he is to put a hook in its snout, one reads his speech in vain to discover. And as for his plan of Government ownership of all the trunk lines, with the States to own the railroads wholly within their own borders, he jauntily projects it before the crowd without giving a hint how the immensely difficult problems of management and financing are to be solved. How the properties are to be bought in, how the $13,000,000,000 of money is to be raised—those are "mere details" which do not exist for this grandiose political thinker.

This fault in a leader of the people is fatal. Flights of oratory, ardent hopes, glowing aspirations, millennial dreams—these are all very well, but a real statesman will not attempt to dazzle men with them until he is prepared to produce the necessary Constitutional amendment, the required draft of a statute, the project of taxation needful, the inexorable financial balance-sheet. Here Bryan still falls far short of the definition of a statesman. He is, indeed, Burke's "man full of warm, speculative benevolence," who wishes "his society otherwise constituted than he finds it"; but is he not open to the charge of "considering his country as nothing but *carte blanche* upon which he may scribble whatever he pleases," and of neglecting "the existing materials of his country"? If he is, then our judgment of his vague proposals can scarcely be other than that they are "vulgar in the conception, perilous in the execution."

JOHN BROWN FIFTY YEARS AFTER OSAWATOMIE.

Kansas has just celebrated, with the aid of the Vice-President of the United States, the semi-centennial of the "battle" at Osawatomie, Kansas. This was a fight between the Free-Soilers, led by John Brown, and a force of pro-slavery raiders variously estimated at between 400 and 1,100 men. It resulted in the defeat of Brown after he had killed 31 of the enemy and wounded between 40 and 50. Among his own killed was his son Frederick, who, though not attached to Brown's fighting column, and offering no resistance, was shot dead by the pro-slavery scouts. It was, in brief, one of many collisions in a purely guerrilla warfare. The leader of the Free-Soilers was a man who shed blood ruthlessly, and who perished on the scaffold for the crime of inciting slaves to insurrection, for treason, and for murder; yet John Brown and his defeated followers are honored as men who performed noble and patriotic service.

According to those who took part in the Kansas celebration, Osawatomie was one of the world's important battles which brought Appomattox in its train as surely as Yorktown followed Bunker Hill. Indeed, since 1877, a marble monument has stood at Osawatomie in "commemoration of the heroism of Capt. John Brown, who commanded at the battle of Osawatomie, August 30, 1856, who died and conquered American slavery at Charlestown, Va., December 2, 1859." To this Kansas battlefield is thus assigned an importance hitherto awarded by some historians to Harper's Ferry. It was from the latter that, in the popular estimation of the time, his soul went marching on to quicken the hosts that destroyed the Confederacy. To Brown himself is given a rôle which plainly cannot be assigned to any man—not even to Lincoln—and does manifest injustice to heroic Abolitionists who fought the battle for human freedom, by peaceful means, years before John Brown appeared upon the scene. In this connection it is a curious fact that of the prominent Abolitionists, only two perished by violence, and these, John Brown and

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Elijah Lovejoy, invited their fate by resorting to arms.

As for Brown himself, however great his influence in bringing on the civil war, the latest historians are not ready to concede that his services to Kansas itself were of the highest importance. Thus, James Ford Rhodes declares with "great positiveness" that "he has been called the liberator of Kansas, but it may be safely affirmed that Kansas would have become a free State in much the same manner and about the same time that it actually did, had John Brown never appeared on the scene." Professor Spring, in his story of Kansas, affirms that "John Brown is a parenthesis in the history of Kansas," and a similar view is taken by Charles Robinson, in his "Kansas Conflict." Indeed, to Mr. Rhodes, as to others, the massacre at Pottawatomie is far more important historically than the skirmish at Osawatomie, and of Brown's blood-guilt on that occasion there can be no doubt. When his own son asked him if he had anything to do with that bloody affair, Brown replied: "I approved of it." His son answered: "Whoever did it, the act was uncalled for and wicked." The father then responded. "God is my judge. The people of Kansas will yet justify my course." As a matter of fact, he gave the signal, and his followers committed the murders. The celebration must not be regarded as a commemoration of this massacre; perhaps it is to throw Pottawatomie further and further into the background that Osawatomie is acclaimed.

And yet Brown had noble traits enough to stand forever a great figure in American history. To him the killing that he did was not murder, but merely "the execution of a decree of God." As in the case of the Russian revolutionists of to-day, the horrors and wrongs he witnessed were beyond his power to endure peacefully. As they have turned to the bomb, so he assailed the slave power practically single-handed; a puny David who was crushed by the Goliath he assailed, he yet began the violent destruction of his enemy. To our minds, the Russian terrorists are more nearly justified, since peaceful agitation is denied them; nevertheless, no one can doubt the sincerity or the religious earnestness of Brown, or his belief in his inspiration from on high. His was an Old Testament figure, and even the leader of the non-resident Abolitionists was compelled to say, on the day John Brown was hanged, that slave insurrections such as that at Harper's Ferry were a "positive moral force."

Emphasis may most fitly be laid upon the courage and nobility displayed by Brown between his capture and his execution. Here he proved himself the moral hero in every sense—calm, dignified, and ready for death. As Frederick Trevor Hill has recently pointed out in *Harper's Magazine*, there came to him during his imprisonment a prophetic realization of what his death on the "glorious gallows" would mean to his cause. "I feel," he wrote, "just as content to die for God's eternal truth on the scaffold as in any other way." Hence the one bitter moment of his trial was when an effort was made to question his sanity. This he indignantly checked himself. From that time on he was buoyed up by a wonderful serenity, an elevation of spirit due partly to his being without consciousness of guilt, partly to his ready submission to the inevitable. "My mind is very tranquil; I may say joyous," was one of his last messages. Unquestionably, his bearing at this crisis has done much to make people forgive his attempt to right wrong conditions by the un-American method of invasion and force. This forgiveness is one explanation of the celebration in Kansas. Another is that people in the North still reverence the men who freed the South from slavery and still cling to their ideals of equality before the law and at the ballot-box.

BANK PRESIDENTS, DIRECTORS, AND PROMOTERS.

Few elements in the tragedy of commercial foul play seem to be lacking in the affair of the Real Estate Trust Company of Philadelphia. The president—a man of unchallenged repute in religious, charitable, and financial circles, for all of which he was a trustee to large amounts—dies suddenly. Examination of the bank accounts discloses practically worthless collateral for much more than half of the institution's loans. The company's doors are closed, and further inquiry shows that the president died by his own hand. The story is the familiar and sordid narrative of the speculating trustee in a market which is "certain to go on rising." No one need be surprised that in this Philadelphia episode, as in the Stensland affair of a month ago, it is real estate speculation which has done the business. The "realty boom" has cut a figure, these past few months, more sensational, perhaps, even than the stock market demonstrations.

The incident forces upon the public several serious warnings. The most obvious is that the consummate swindler is apt to cloak himself in religious pretence. Mr. Hipple was so scrupulous in the performance of his religious duties. Even in minutiæ like abstention from tobacco and the Sunday newspaper, he was such a model to the young. "Why," says an inconsolable Presbyterian, "it's enough to break down faith in human nature!" But faith in human nature ought to go with some knowledge of it; and no fact of it is better established than that hypocritical religiosity is the final touch of imposture. Faith in human nature is a fine thing, and regular attendance at church is excellent; but in the banking business we cannot get on without inspection that inspects and direction that directs. Without them, snivelling hypocrites will go on, for a pretence, making long prayers in order that they may the more easily devour widows' houses.

This shortcoming of the directors is the second point to be noted. In the Philadelphia case the directors had not met for over two years. Hipple was thus unfairly subjected to the sorest temptation. There are financiers, we are willing to believe, able and upright enough to manage a banking institution single-handed; but it is evident, first, that no honest man would desire so invidious a responsibility, and, next, that nobody should be exposed to that kind of moral hazard. Hipple is dead and beyond reach of the law, but his derelict directors are alive, and are responsible for the losses. We have had occasion to note the desirability of imprisoning crooked officers and directors when the law permits; for holding negligent officers financially responsible, the argument is irresistible. It is high time that a directorship should be regarded as a serious trust, and not merely as a ribbon to stick in the coat of dabblers in high finance.

To this phase of the matter we called attention on the occasion of the recent and equally disgraceful Milwaukee Avenue Bank failure at Chicago. Stensland abstracted the money by the clumsy device of making loans to fictitious persons, and pocketing the proceeds. A clerk at the ledger ought to have seen through this shallow trick, let alone a board of directors or a bank examiner. Hipple's plan for making away with the funds was to shift the collateral from one account to another, to make it appear that certain accounts, with no collateral at all behind them, were properly secured. The very fact that such substitution has been possible proves that directors and bank examiners should inquire sharply into the personality of the borrower and the projects for which money is used. About half of the Real Estate Trust Company's loans were made to one individual, and he a notorious speculator and promoter. The directors were men of business experience; all of them may be presumed to have known of Segal and his exploits. Under such conditions the published explanation that the borrower exercised a "hypnotic influence" on the president is pitifully weak. The true explanation is that these directors were either shirks or fellow-criminals.

The theory of the "hypnotic promoter" who is able to lead veteran bank presidents by the nose, calls for animadversion. We must confess to entire disbe-

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lief in it, except as it means that men like Hipple have had their brains so turned by the speculative mania that they are easy victims to smooth-tongued adventurers. There has probably never been a time—certainly not since the great "land crazes" of 1856 and 1872—when promoters of this sort were so numerous, and, apparently, so successful. Bank officers throughout the country are besieged to lend money, directly or indirectly, to such enterprises. But for this purpose no banking institution has the right to lend a dollar. The bank officer who does so is simply committing his unsuspecting depositors to a plunge into real estate speculation. The bank director who permits, and the bank examiner who overlooks, any practice of the sort is guilty of gross betrayal of trust.

CAMPBELL-BANNERMAN'S SUCCESS.

The death of Lady Campbell-Bannerman, terminating a happy marriage of forty-six years, will call forth deep sympathy for the English Premier, not only in England, but abroad, where his earnest efforts for international peace have won proper appreciation. On the Continent the rank of a broad and able statesman has been more readily assigned to Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman than at home. There people admired him because he looked the typical English gentleman, a refined John Bull, with much of that personage's weight and color, and because he was such a good fighter. Through all the dark days of the Boer war, when his party seemed hopelessly discredited and out of sympathy with the masses, Sir Henry stuck to his unpleasant task of leading the Opposition. This he did manfully and vigorously, undeterred by charges that he was a "Little Englander" and that he sympathized with his country's enemies. One of the very first signs of a change in public opinion towards the Conservatives was the sudden popularity of Campbell-Bannerman. This Sir Alfred Harmsworth discovered when he inquired of his agents throughout the kingdom how the political policy of his papers was liked. The answer came back promptly: "It won't do to be too hard on C.-B. He's getting popular."

When it became evident that the Conservatives could no longer remain in power, "C.-B.," by general consent, was looked to as the next Prime Minister. But even in his own party the reasons given were not always complimentary. Sir Henry, it was said, had earned the honor by his hard fighting; it was to be a recompense for brave service in the hour of need, rather than the reward of statesmanship. It was even openly hinted that after he had held the place for a session he would be transferred to the House of Lords to make room for a really constructive leader. Naturally, these insinuations greatly pleased the Conservatives. They had confidently informed the country that constructive statesmanship was an exclusive asset of their party; moreover, they were quite convinced that Campbell-Bannerman had no gift whatever for leadership. Just contrast, they said, his plain, uninspired utterances with the graceful, clever, and even brilliant speeches of Arthur Balfour. The Liberals had no leader, and if they got a big majority it would collapse for lack of coherence and direction.

Lady Campbell-Bannerman lived long enough to see this idle talk wholly dissipated. Friends and enemies alike discovered that the new Prime Minister had a genius for leadership; that he was able to control his varied following with what a shrewd English observer calls "his most admirable characteristics," serenity and composure. The gossip about his going to the House of Lords died out. After Parliament had been in session two months it was admitted that if anything should happen to Campbell-Bannerman there was no one who could quite fill his place. For the position is difficult; a large majority is far more trying than a small homogeneous one. This particular majority would have called forth all of Gladstone's great qualities of leadership. There are, for instance, the Irish, the Labor members, and what may be called radical Liberals; on the Education bill the Irish broke away entirely, and a large number of Liberals, more than were brought out by any one vote, chafed under the bill as a weak compromise and longed to separate Church and State at one blow. Nevertheless, on the final vote, after months of discussion and opportunity for friction, the Prime Minister's majority was 192. Again, on the vexed question of Chinese labor in South Africa, there has been a marked divergence of opinion among the Premier's supporters, both in Parliament and in the press. Yet Sir Henry was able to keep his followers in hand, and, after six months, the party tie is as strong as it has been at any time during the last twenty years; while, except from Mr. Chamberlain, all talk of the Administration's collapsing in a year or two is at an end.

During all this time Campbell-Bannerman's followers, particularly the younger members of Parliament, have become more and more attached to the man himself. His straight-forwardness is a lesson to shuffling politicians the world over. Several members of his Cabinet, Mr. Bryce, Mr. Asquith, and Lord Crewe, are bitterly opposed to woman's suffrage; that did not keep Campbell-Bannerman from stating to the suffragists that he was a convert to their cause, and bidding them wait in patience for the victory which is sure to be theirs. Prime ministers rarely make such frank expressions of merely personal convictions, and it would have been easy for Campbell-Bannerman to have avoided the issue. Similarly, his stand on other questions is known to all, in striking contrast with the evasions of Mr. Balfour on the tariff issue. Nor has Campbell-Bannerman lost any of his aggressiveness, now that he sits on the Treasury bench instead of in opposition. The warmth and vigor of his replies to Balfour, whom he only recently denounced in round terms for making the "most discreditable speech" he had ever heard in Parliament, have naturally had their effect in inspiring the young men who have been accustomed to lie down under Mr. Balfour's occasional insolences.

In its first six months the Campbell-Bannerman Government has undeniably accomplished much, even though its most important measures, the Aliens bill, the Education bill, and others, are still in the hands of the Lords. The Government has learned to map out a firm line for itself, and to stick to it. Its foreign policy has pleased Conservatives and Liberals; and its plan for army reform, however much it may be attacked in detail, is plainly along the right lines. Turning to the navy, it has shown its willingness to limit construction; in India its policy is one of reform and of home rule. For its general attitude of peace and good-will towards other nations, credit must largely be given to Campbell-Bannerman. Hence every one must rejoice that the Prime Minister is at length receiving due credit as a statesman, a scholar, and a popular leader.

WERE THE NEW SPELLING GOES.

The press, especially in England, has displayed surprising heat over President Roosevelt's adoption of spelling reform. It seems to be the idea abroad that from this hour every American child is to be taught the new style; that every printing office throughout—or "thruout"—the country will laboriously adapt itself to the Carnegie Board's dicta. "It is rather odd," says the London *Speaker*, "that the American system of government should lend itself to small monstrosities of tyranny that would never be tolerated in Russia or China." In the same tone the *St. James's Gazette* asks: "Could the Czar venture to do such a thing, or even the Kaiser?" Probably not; but it can do no harm to pause long enough to consider just what "such a thing" is, and what are its implications.

Grant that the new spellings appear in the bulk of the Government publications. Now, the Government Printing Office is the largest establishment in the world. Its output is widely circulated gratis, or at nominal prices. Seemingly, this vast number of books and

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pamphlets ought to leaven a large lump of unregenerate national literature. Yet there is one peculiarity about Government publications which makes them an almost negligible factor in the fixing of orthography. People do not read them at first hand. Let any one of us consider how many pages of Government print he has ever actually read. Some people religiously go through the President's message every year. but they read it in the newspapers. This year a few newspapers will print the message as it is spelled, in order to show their readers what it looks like; but when the novelty has worn off the newspapers will treat the President's utterances as they treat all other contributions and dispatches—follow the office "style card." Exactly the same thing will be done with reports of Cabinet officers. So far as the general public is concerned, it would not matter much if they were sent out originally in runes, or "New York point" for the blind, or the Morse telegraph alphabet. The newspapers would translate them, and not one American in a thousand would ever know what the original spelling and capitals were. The "Statistical Abstract," which is a generally consulted reference book, is composed mainly of numerals which no one wants to reform. The *Congressional Record* has readers, of course, among curious constituents and those personally interested in legislation. Yet even supposing that everybody who gets a copy reads it—a somewhat daring assumption—it would still reach no more people than the *Courrier des Etats Unis* or the *Clipper*. No one would suggest that the use of reformed spelling in *The Foolish Book* would be a potent way of spreading it, yet that periodical goes to nearly twice as many people as the *Congressional Record*. Moreover, Congress has not yet voted to make the *Record* conform to the President's order for publications of executive departments.

Nevertheless, there are Government books which are read, so to speak, in their own right. Nearly all of them are publications of the Department of Agriculture. The report of the Superintendent of Documents shows that the Department year-book leads all others in favor. Then follow the "Special Report on Diseases of the Horse," the "Special Report on Diseases of Cattle," "Bulletin on the Honey Bee," "Bulletin on Chemical Composition of American Food Materials," and so on. Here is the field in which—if the Secretary of Agriculture so wills it—Presidential spelling may have most sway. The farmer's natural inclination toward phonetic spelling has for many generations been a cause for mirth. Whenever he reads about anthrax and ring-bone and the ginseng plant, and the way to make bread and the way to exterminate cabbage rot, and—as we were tempted to say—"whether pigs have wings," he will rise up and bless the President who brings the mysteries of spelling right down to the soil.

Our Government has had one practical experience in a tussle with language. The Board of Geographic Names has for many years been making lists of approved spellings and pronunciations for the names of places. It has done great service in securing uniformity and correcting preposterous usages. But it has never been able to enforce its ideas a foot beyond the line marked by regular custom. In many foreign instances it has announced preferences for names supported by arguments of analogy, etymology, and history. But it has not brought them into use outside the publications which are under obligations to accept its findings. There is no reason for expecting a different outcome in the contest over a broader issue.

In short, an analysis of the scope of the President's order merely confirms what various critics had already said would, on general principles, be the progress of spelling reform. A new spelling will be tolerable only if it is promulgated under weighty literary or academic auspices. For example, the reformed spelling of German gained its partial victory because a number of academic periodicals simultaneously agreed upon its adoption. If the British and American quarterlies and three or four great London publishers can be converted, a real start will have been made. Without such backing, newspapers will be exceedingly reluctant to adopt it because they will see no advantage in irritating and alienating readers. Thus most people will rarely see a page a year in the "new style" unless they go out of their way to observe it as a curiosity. The wonderful "model" which, with the Government imprimatur, was to change all our spelling, will really be before the eyes of few except Government employees. The President's adherence to the movement will advertise it, and, so far as advertising can help, will help it. But spelling and grammar and the meanings of words are fixed, not by the edicts of Presidents or even of dictionary-makers, but by the slowly but steadily changing common consent of all who use the language.

ART LIBRARIES.

The report of the librarian of Columbia University contains the interesting announcement of an intention to build up a department of fine arts. Edward R. Smith, in charge of the Avery Architectural Library, declares that since Columbia is to have an art faculty and to be the centre of art study, the need of an appropriate library is pressing. He makes an appeal for a sufficient endowment for this purpose, since the general funds do not suffice, and it is undignified to beg from pocket to pocket. With his plan we are in complete sympathy, though the matter of parallel enterprises, dismissed summarily by Mr. Smith, deserves a certain consideration. And it cannot be held that the appeal is premature, even if the art faculty of Columbia is still largely on paper; for the library must precede the professor; without it his work is vain, without him it may do useful service. Furthermore, to build up such a collection of books is in some ways more of a task than to recruit a teaching force; hence the mooting of this project is wholly in order.

Several institutions are, it is true, pursuing a parallel and possibly competitive course. The Public Library has a large general collection of art books, not to mention the fine collection of modern etchings, given by the late Samuel P. Avery, and a small but choice collection of Japanese color prints and illustrated books. Mr. Weitenkampf, the curator of the print-room, has also begun collecting all manner of facsimiles of paintings, is exhibiting an important loan collection of photographs of Italian paintings, and means to expand this reference library of facsimiles as fast as funds are provided. The Metropolitan Museum, primarily for the use of its staff, but also for public service, has brought together an art library of more than 10,000 volumes, and this autumn makes a beginning upon a comprehensive collection of photographs of paintings. The Cooper Union, besides a general collection of books, has a remarkable array of albums running into the thousands, in which all manner of prints illustrating the industrial arts are systematically classified. Clearly, if the Columbia Library is to extend its scope to include all the arts, it must in a large degree duplicate the work of three existing libraries. One naturally asks, then, if, by some measure of cooperation and division of labor, this overlapping could not be avoided.

In the main, probably, each library must run its own course. The Public Library evidently must continue to seek completeness in this as in all other departments; the Metropolitan Museum, the best provided, financially, of all, cannot well abridge its plans; the Cooper Union has its work in the arts and crafts inexorably laid out. In other words, any adjustment must come chiefly from Columbia, whose art library is yet to make. The problem of articulating its new facilities with those in other parts of the city will tax the ingenuity of its library staff, and perhaps bewilder its readers. Possibly, Mr. Smith's plan of frankly disregarding the other libraries may in the end prove the simplest. Obviously, the professors of the university schools of art will need a working library on the spot, and between a working and a compre-

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hensive collection it is difficult to draw the line. At certain points, however, Columbia might do well to depend on the other libraries.

For example, the print-room of the Public Library has got such a start that an attempt to rival it would be unfortunate. A donor with fine prints to put at the disposal of the public would be foolish to give them elsewhere. Similarly, the assembling of photographs of paintings is so obviously a necessity of the Metropolitan Museum that students will naturally look to it for aid in that regard. We are, however, ready to believe that select collections of photographs, both at the Public Library and at Columbia, might also perform a useful educational and pedagogical function. It is clear also that, provided the money were given for the purpose and not withdrawn from other projects, sheer duplication would to a certain extent be no disadvantage, but rather a benefit. Yet three such complete collections would surely be in the nature of a luxury. Generally speaking, no librarian should be at pains, perhaps at the sacrifice of other activities, to repeat a work already satisfactorily done by a colleague.

In the whole matter of studying art history Columbia will undoubtedly find that the Metropolitan Museum is its best auxiliary. Lecture courses of a general sort will naturally be given at the university itself, and books and illustrative materials for such courses, besides the working facilities we have already mentioned, must be provided on the spot. But the art faculty will, we believe, find that research courses can best be conducted in connection with the Metropolitan Museum, and perhaps actually under its roof. There is already a sufficient community of interest between the Museum and the University to make such an arrangement feasible, and as the staff of the Museum is increased and strengthened, Columbia will naturally draw on that supply for her lecturers. If Columbia finds an æsthetic Carnegie who insists on setting up a comprehensive art library, a print and photograph department, and a lantern-slide laboratory, nobody can blame her for accepting the offer. But for immediate and practical purposes it seems that both the Metropolitan Museum and the Public Library should be reckoned among academic facilities for the study of the history of art.

THE CURRICULUM FOR GIRLS.

To temper the wind to the shorn lamb seems to be the desire of most people who are concerned about the education of girls. But lambs have a habit of growing out of a tender and protected youth into an age which is forced to weather storms. The training of young people is always a deal in futures. To educate girls by a method adapted to give them uninterrupted pleasure between the ages of sixteen and twenty, and to spoil them for any satisfactory living after they are twenty-five, is a curiously shortsighted policy for people of intelligence. A wiser undertaking for girls' schools would be to abandon experiments on the wind and to provide their lambs with a warm fleece, sure to become pleasant and easy to wear, as its power of defence against the blasts of human life is proved.

Since misunderstandings are so rife, it may be well here and now to introduce a caveat and say that rigorous intellectual training does not involve either overwork or failure to recognize the place of recreation and social pleasure in the scheme of education. Under existing circumstances, however, girls suffer less from overwork than from misdirected work. Parents who wish to give their daughters serious mental discipline, something more than the most superficial graces and accomplishments, are often at a loss as to which way to turn, what school to choose, what curriculum to plan. This bewilderment is not surprising. Even women's colleges, we must admit, are not invariably of the sterner mould, although in general they have united to make genuine discipline an important part of girls' education. Some few schools are glad to follow suit; but probably they would be the first to maintain that strong opposing influences make their task difficult. Defects in the preparation of girls for college are still obvious. This, however, is but a limited aspect of the wider truth that there are defects in the methods of preparing girls to carry on a life that shall be in the least satisfying to themselves or to any appreciable degree useful to the rest of the world. Whether the fault lie chiefly with the college or with the school, or even with the parents, is not the present question. While they are quarrelling over Patroclus's body, we discuss the situation as we find it. The correct apportionment of responsibility would better follow than precede a consideration of the vital issues.

The chief cause of confusion and wasted energy is the line commonly drawn between those girls who are going to college and those who are not. This division is about as senseless as an early division of infants according to their future tastes in foods. A preliminary milk diet is inevitable for them all. We need not erect this figure of speech into a formal argument in order to urge that the same preliminary training between the ages of fourteen and eighteen, if it be sound and sane, should be equally good for all girls, whether they are going to seek the shelter of college, or, heedless of further provisioning, make at once for the open. To say this is not to entertain the roseate view that the present college requirements are ideal. But probably they need only modifications, enlargements here and retrenchments there, rather than any complete transformation. Even as they stand, they demand nothing unreasonable of any intelligent girl, however pretty, and nothing that any intelligent woman, however charming, should not be able to look back upon as part of the spoils of youth, and to use as part of the possessions of maturity. These college requirements, as set forth in the technical language of the school programme, sometimes strike the layman as a terrifying mystery; but they are, in fact, extremely simple. A modicum of English for self-respect, a modern language or two to help one farther afield, something of an ancient language to show that "it is we, and not the world, are new," a little history to make the sky line more remote, a few facts of mathematics to keep the mind clear, and a hint of science to reveal a world of law—surely these are by no means over-heavy accoutrements even for women who are going to be unlabelled members of society. Yet they are the only ones which colleges demand of their new recruits.

The mere enumeration of these requirements is sufficient proof of their importance in the intellectual equipment of every girl who aspires to anything beyond childish acquirements. They are obviously the irreducible minimum. Indeed, the only plea for offering a different course to students who are not going to college is that the rigid preparation required for college leaves no time for the pursuit of other desirable subjects from which those should not be debarred to whom school is the last educational opportunity. This plea, however, is based on the curious theory, unchallenged because unexpressed, that no woman (or man) acquires knowledge after twenty-two, and that a larger proportion of women reach at eighteen the end of acquiring. Anything, therefore, that a human being may conceivably need at any future time must be secured before that age; for outside the portals of the school house and beyond the teacher's bell, minds are never stirred by curiosity or impelled to find out the unknown. The working of this fallacy among college students results in their desire to take every subject announced in the catalogue; and among school authorities, in foisting into the curriculum such things as political economy, "mental philosophy," and art criticism—subjects as many and as diverse as the ingredients of a nonsense rhyme. We forget that there will be many a brave year after the traditional four or eight of school and college, when the treasures of this world may be exploited by minds made keen and supple through a simple and coherent training. Whether the bell rings for the last time after school life or after college, it should usher out young men and women who are not arrogant vaunters of scraps from the ragbag of knowledge, but who, because they know, in proportion to their youth, a few fundamental things accurately, will answer a humble, hopeful, and eager *adsum* to the peremptory call of greater masters.

One of the evils resulting from the existence of two school courses side by side is that the preparatory course is made to seem an unnatural thing, taken for no more rational reason than to pass examinations irrationally set by erratic colleges. Parents therefore hesitate to plan to send their daughters to college because it means separating them at an early age from what they understand "educators" regard as the best training for the normal girl. Even bright girls, who take natural enjoyment in a moderate amount of study along with their play, grow so tired of hearing college

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talked about in school and of having all their work portioned off as "preparatory to college" that they revolt from the idea and prefer a course in which they are not a target for constant nagging.

Thus it often happens that a girl's decision to go to college comes late. Within a year or two of the proper time for entrance she decides that, after all, college is too fine an experience to be thrown away. Certain requirements must be met, and she is put into the incubator. If any regard is had for her physical and mental health, she is allowed to cover the ground with just sufficient thoroughness to pass, creditably enough, her examinations. This procedure is manifestly unjust to the college preparatory course, robs it of much of its disciplinary value, and incidentally strengthens in the minds of the girl and her parents the suspicion that it is arbitrary folly. Really to educate her mind to the stage proper for her years, and really to equip her for handling the substance of knowledge and of life as it is to be later presented to her is of course impossible. That kind of training is a slow process and its starting point must be placed much farther back. As for the schools and the teachers who allow long hours and nervous strain to take the place of learning, and who make a contemptible travesty of education by setting the goal of mere high marks to be won by anæmic girls—they deserve the heaviest millstone and the depths of the deepest sea.

With this anathema kept ready against the only real offenders, we may revert to the main point, the only point of great moment—the thesis with which we began. It is simply that students should be taught what it is to work hard. The greatest wrong done to girls lies in giving them no chance to follow out, firmly and severely through a long series of years, a course of intellectual and moral development. They are cheated out of seeing that fair sight, the smile upon the face of duty. We are so afraid of making them into the most pitiable of God's creatures—women of shattered nerves—that we deprive them of that healthy enjoyment of sane work, combined with a sane enjoyment of healthy play, which keeps a girl well and normal. A splendid vitality can be preserved in unison with work which clears the brain, strengthens the will, and enlarges the capacity for cheerfulness, quite as well as in unison with continuous pleasure-seeking which befogs the intellect, weakens the fibres of character, and tends toward restlessness and disillusionment. We are so afraid of making girls into the most useless of God's creatures—women lacking grace, gentleness, and human sympathies—that we deprive them of that absorption in larger interests outside themselves which quickens their perfect adjustment in all social relations.

In reality our need for girls to-day is schools which, while they do not scorn health and manners, will keep them as equerries in the train of hard thinking and sturdy living; schools which will establish traditions and methods of discipline and training, and keep to them though the heathen rage; schools which will prepare for college, if that is to be our terminology, not spasmodically or with difficulty, but steadily and with the inevitable ease of rigorous perseverance. A few such schools, it must be repeated, have already come into existence. What they need is the support of public sympathy. Let us talk less about shorn lambs, and, with an eye to the inexorable winds, help to make ready the fleeces. A. C. E. ALLINSON.

Providence, R. I.

LONDON BOOK NEWS.

LONDON, August 22.

August is usually a month when publishers and authors, like the dog mentioned by Quilp, are "lurking for a spring," and are not actually springing anything on an eager public. Madame Buchholz, we know, in a holiday and season of entire leisure, began to read Humboldt's "Cosmos," but, after two trials, discovered that she "had no time," and that, after all, it did not matter how high the mountains are in Colorado. It has usually been taken for granted that in their holidays people have no time to read. On the other hand, when they are in town, they certainly have no time (I speak of the women), for they have to pay visits, and the dressmaker is "the thief of time." In the holidays they are far from their dressmaker, and, in dreary lodgings and hotels, on wet days, they are often seen with books in their hands, and melancholy throned on their brows.

Thus a wise popular novelist will choose "the dead season" as the very best season for publication. Our two most eminent creative minds have done so, and a new novel by Miss Corelli is in the hands of all. Decorated with a portrait of the fair author, this volume appeals to the bibliophile no less than to the mere student. With the portrait of Hall Caine we are already familiar, and I think none is given in his new romance, sold at sixpence, and appealing to our romantic instincts under the engaging title of "Drink." A lady in the narrative does not drink to us only with her eyes, as the temperance poet, Ben Jonson, requests a fair one to do, but is even too convivial. The publishers inform us that "the love story is enthralling," and that the work is "as important as a sermon, and as sensational as a detective story." Doubtless this novel will be criticised in the *British Journal of Inebricty*, a convivial review which lies on the table of a public library frequented by myself, beside the *Revue de l'Histoire des Religions*. The pages of both are usually virgin of the paper cutter.

Except for the two masterpieces mentioned, little or nothing is being published. As if one Life of Walter Pater were not enough, Thomas Wright promises a successor to the critical study by Mr. Benson. "It will be in many respects the most valuable work that has proceeded from his pen." His publisher says so, and his publisher ought to know. We are to be told much about "the early Paters," who lived at Olney, celebrated as the birthplace of the Olney Hymns. Information is also promised about Richard C. Jackson; all of it will have the merit of absolute novelty to readers hitherto ignorant of Mr. Jackson's life and adventures, while Richard Robinson's career will not be neglected. Concerning Mr. Pater's friendship with these eminent men "no previous writer has recorded a single word."

Personally I look forward with more excitement to a new book by the ladies who wrote "The Reminiscences of an Irish Resident Magistrate," a book of genuine humor, and of much unobtrusive literary skill. "Some Irish Yesterdays" is the title: few people can write well about Irish life, but we are safe with "E. Somerville" and "Martin Ross." Again, "The Life and Letters of Leslie Stephen" is sure to be much better worth reading than most Lives and Letters, as Sir Leslie was a truly original character, who had known all distinguished people of the literary world since Thackeray. The author is F. W. Maitland, a writer who can give vivacity to the history of early mediæval institutions, a topic which certainly needs enlivening. How Augustine Birrell is to find time for a book on Browning, only very busy men can imagine.

There is a proposal to found a "Titmarsh Club" in honor of Thackeray, but there are already so many literary dining clubs that one more seems a superfluity of conviviality. The best are those in which it is forbidden to make speeches, but none are to be called very amusing, and at a Rabelais dinner one yet felt as if one were celebrating the memory of Blair, author of "The Grave." ANDREW LANG.

Correspondence.

NAPIER'S LOGARITHMS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: How did Napier work his logarithms? Who can tell? Some years ago I reviewed a book in which Lord Napier's great invention was treated, but his method not set forth. I raised the author's anger by trying to supply the gap from what as a boy I had seen in an old German book (Vieth, 1804). Napier, he said, drew square roots consecutively; say, trying to get the logarithm of two, he would twenty-seven times draw the square root, thus finally arriving at the 134,217,728th root of 2, which is = 1, then a decimal point and 8 ciphers, then 8 telling digits, all the root-drawing having been carried to 16 figures. For a quantity of this sort we may say log $(1 + \omega) = \omega$ within the decimals used. Multiplying the eight telling digits by 134,217,728, they will from places 9—16 drop into places 1—8, and the result = log nat 2. The author, though rejecting my statement, did not give any other in place of it; and he set me to searching.

I knew all along that Napier's logarithms, being those of sines or of tangents for arcs less than 45°, were all negative; also that his seven places were not marked as decimals; and thus we might say that though his logarithms were at bottom "natural," he, in form at least, used the modulus —10,000,000. At the first opportunity, stopping at Washington on business, I looked up the "Mirifici logar. canonis descriptio" (1614), in the Congressional Library, and found to my surprise that Napier's logarithm for sin30°, *i. e.*, of ½, is 6931469, though log nat 2 = .69314718. So his logarithms are not natural at all, and could not have been reached by the method which Vieth describes. The "Constructio" (1617) is not in the Library and I could not get hold of it. I looked the matter up in some histories of

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mathematics (*e. g.*, Hutton), but found no clue; I then consulted the Encyclopædia Britannica, and this (art. Logarithms) gives Napier's modulus at—10,000,000, which is *wrong*. Taking further notes from the "Descriptio," I found log sin 1′ = 81-425681, while log nat sin 1′ = —8.1425717, a difference of 36 in the last two decimals. I found likewise Napier's log tan30° = 5493-059, while log nat tan30° = ½ log nat $\frac{1}{3}$ = —.5493061.4. These three instances, which I found confirmed by another, and which are undoubtedly in harmony with all the rest of Napier's table, show that his modulus is not—10,000,000, but pretty nearly—9,999,995.6 (9,999,995 and six-tenths, negative).

How did he come by this modulus, either consciously or unconsciously? Is there any one of your readers who can tell me?

L. N. D.

Louisville, Ky., August 28.

Notes.

Some of the more important of the autumn announcements of Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have already been mentioned in this column. Other books that promise special interest are: "Walt Whitman," by Bliss Perry; "Charles Godfrey Leland," by Elizabeth Robins Pennell; "Memoir and Letters of Frederic Dan Huntington," by Arria S. Huntington; "My Pilgrimage to the Wise Men of the East," by Moncure D. Conway; "Through Man to God," by George A. Gordon; "Atonement in Literature and Life," by Charles A. Dinsmore; "Christ and the Human Race," by Charles Cuthbert Hall; "Realities of Christian Theology," by Clarence A. Beckwith; "The Hebrew Literature of Wisdom in the Light of To-day," by John F. Genung; "Ecclesiastes in the Metre of Omar," by William B. Forbush; "Friends on the Shelf," by Bradford Torrey; "The Higher Study of English," by Albert S. Cook; "The Poetry of Chaucer," by Robert K. Root; "Books, Culture and Character," by J. N. Larned; "Talks on the Teaching of Literature," by Arlo Bates; "Le Plutarque de Montaigne," by Grace Norton; "From Old Fields," a posthumous volume of poetry by N. S. Shaler; "The Practice of Diplomacy," by John W. Foster; "Progress in the Household," by Lucy M. Salmon; "The Struggle for a Free Stage in London," by Watson Nicholson; "Organized Democracy," by Albert Stickney; "Studies in Philosophy and Psychology," by Charles E. Garman; "Pure Design," by Denman W. Ross.

Among the autumn announcements of Little, Brown & Co. are: "Mars and Its Mystery," by Edward S. Morse; "Starting in Life," a guide to the selection of a business or profession by Nathaniel C. Fowler, jr., and others; Lilian Whiting's "From Dream to Vision of Life," uniform with "The World Beautiful"; "Last Verses," by the late Susan Coolidge; "A Handbook of Polar Discoveries," by Gen. A. W. Greely; "Buff: A Tale for the Thoughtful," a popular work on the common sense of health "by a Physiopath"; "The Stars and Stripes and Other American Flags," by Peleg D. Harrison; "The Economy of Happiness," by James Mackaye; "The Syllogistic Philosophy," by Francis E. Abbot; "An Atlas of Physiology and Anatomy"; "Forget-Me-Not," a book of selections for daily reading by Anna Mellen Stearns and Clara Bancroft Beatley; and "Paul the Apostle," as viewed by a layman, by Edward H. Hall.

Doubleday, Page & Co. will soon have ready "The Pursuit of Happiness," a series of essays by Dr. George Hodges, dean of the Episcopal Theological School of Cambridge, Mass. Another book to be published by the same house is Homer B. Hulbert's "Passing of Korea." Mr. Hulbert was the special agent of the Emperor of Korea to this country to protest against the usurpation of Japan in the peninsula, and his work is a thoroughly sympathetic study of the land, not without glances at the Eastern question as it is there developing.

D. Appleton & Co. are publishing "The House of Islam," a novel of Turkish life by Marmaduke Pickthall, the author of "Said, the Fisherman." Other books on their autumn list are: George Moore's "Memoirs of My Dead Life"; Albert Abendschein's "Secrets of the Old Masters," and Charles F. Thwing's "History of Higher Education in America."

Henry Frowde announces these books as in the press: "The Theory of Good and Evil," by H. Rashdall; "Hyperides" (Oxford classical texts), edited by F. G. Kenyon; "Tacitus Annals" (Oxford classical texts), edited by C. D. Fisher; "Oxford Anthology of English Literature," by G. E. and W. H. Hadow; "Cæsar's Civil War," translated by F. P. Long; "Knuth's Flower Pollination, Vol. II.," translated by J. R. Ainsworth Davis.

Two new volumes in the Scriptorum Classicorum Bibliotheca Oxoniensis may be named here without attempting to criticise the construction of the texts: Longinus "De Sublimitate," edited by A. O. Prickard, and Plato's "Euthyphro, Apologia, Crito, and Phædo," edited by John Burnet.

Mrs. Russell Barrington has prepared "The Life, Letters, and Work of Frederic Leighton," which will be published in the autumn by George Allen, London. Mrs. Barrington has had access to the papers and correspondence of Lord Leighton through the assistance of his sister and other members of his family, and the volumes will contain his diaries and letters. Among his correspondents were George Eliot, Ruskin, Browning, and Dickens. Other books of interest in Mr. Allen's autumn list are "Lord Acton and His Circle: Letters to Various Correspondents," edited by Abbot Gasquet, and "Sir Thomas Lawrence's Letterbag," edited by G. Soames Layard, with the unpublished recollections of the artist by Elizabeth Croft.

Thomas Whittaker is the American publisher of "A Mission of the Spirit," being a series of addresses delivered last Lent during a progressive mission in his diocese by the Bishop of London, the Rt. Rev. A. F. Winnington Ingram.

Herbert B. Turner & Co. are about to publish "The Historical Bases of Religions: Primitive, Babylonian, and Jewish," by Hiram Chellis Brown. It is an attempt to explain the religious sense from purely natural and historical causes.

T. E. Thistelton-Dyer has prepared what he calls the "Folk-Lore of Women," which is to be issued this autumn by A. C. McClurg & Co. It is, in brief, an anthology of what men have written and said about women—a large subject.

We are soon to have a new anthology, "A Pageant of Elizabethan Poetry," selected by Arthur Symons. The period is from Spenser to Herrick, and the arrangement is not chronological, but by subjects.

The University Press of Sewanee issues Emerson's "Essay on Compensation" in a neat pamphlet, with an introduction by Lewis Nathaniel Chase.

"Foibles of the Bar," by Henry S. Wilcox, will be published by the Legal Literature Company of Chicago, October 1. It is a companion volume to "Foibles of the Bench."

Beginning September 7th the *North American Review* will be issued as a fortnightly magazine. It will contain a new department devoted to the criticism of current literature. Ninety-one years ago the *North American* started as a quarterly. Sixty years later it became a bimonthly, and for a generation it has been a monthly. Henceforth it will be published on the first and third Fridays of each month.

The new *Putnam's Magazine* will be published on the 25th of September, and on that day of successive months.

We have before us a reprint of Richard E. Helbig's "Deutsch-Amerikanisches in der New York Public Library" from *German-American Annals*. It gives an account of the recent increase of material in the library on a subject which is attracting more attention every year.

A new volume of the Mermaid Series (imported by Scribners) contains four plays of Farquhar's with an Introduction by William Archer. This completes for the series the four leading "comic dramatists of the Restoration," to use Macaulay's grouping. It is to be remarked that in several cases the new format of a well-known series is by no means as agreeable as the old. Thus the new volumes of Bohn's library are without character, and in every way inferior to the old. The Mermaid texts are now issued in those thin-paper editions which are the detestation of most good book-lovers. Other series might be named which have put on a new and inferior dress.

All who love Mr. Hardy's novels will welcome the new edition of Dr. Windle's "The Wessex of Thomas Hardy" (John Lane Co.), which was reviewed in these columns on its first appearance five years ago. The present edition is unchanged as regards the contents, but is made up in a rather smaller volume, which is very attractive and light in the hand. E. H. New's charming illustrations, though occasionally too much of the "decorative" order, as one expects from a disciple of William Morris, have for the most part the sombre beauty which is appropriate to pictures of Wessex, that background of tragedies.

Painstaking care and a kindly spirit rather than a style which will appeal to readers characterize the Rev. Bridgeman C. F. C. W.-Boughton-Leigh's "Memorials of a Warwickshire Family" (Henry Frowde); and much the same care has marked the

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production of the book, which is an example of the University Press at Oxford at its best. A kindly and appreciative spirit runs through this story of the Leighs and the Boughton-Leighs, which is specially noteworthy in the treatment of the Baptist Chapel at Rugby and of one of its pastors, the Rev. Edward Fall—noteworthy because usually when clergymen of the Church of England are writing of any of the Free Churches such notice as the author bestows on the Baptists of Rugby is not the rule. Sir Egerton Leigh, Bart. (1762-1818), was, however, of the Baptist Church. He preached for many years at the chapel at Rugby and often in the open air; and a baronet in the pulpit is about as uncommon in England as a territorial family which is not of the Established Church. Warwickshire is the home county of the Leighs; and as the churches and mansions of twelve Warwickshire villages and towns, including Rugby, are described, these "Memorials," apart from their genealogical and family interest, are an addition to the local literature of the show county of the Midlands, and for that reason likely to appeal to a larger audience than that immediately concerned with the history of the Leighs and the Boughton-Leighs. The illustrations are particularly good, and contribute in a high degree to this wider appeal.

We have reached a period where we may well employ very critical standards as to data on the Philippine Islands. We are therefore unable to find much justification for the new edition of Foreman's work on those regions ("The Philippine Islands," by John Foreman; imported by Charles Scribner's Sons), a large volume of about 650 pages. Mr. Foreman, who was for some years before the end of Spanish rule engaged in introducing into the Philippine Islands English machinery for tropical agriculture, published in 1890 a treatise on those islands, occupied mainly with the data he had gathered as to sugar and other cultures, observations on his trips through the islands, and a bad hodge-podge of information and misinformation in a number of chapters on the history of the islands. The author had collected a jumble of data, often garbled, from Father Concepción and one or two other friar-chroniclers. In recent years no treatise on the Philippines had been published in English except translations from German and Spanish originals. Hence, Mr. Foreman was accepted as *the* English-speaking authority on the Philippines and was invited to enlighten our peace commissioners at Paris in 1898. The next year he brought out a new edition of his book, which had a large sale in the United States, and which in consequence gained an undeserved reputation. It has been quoted regularly since 1899 as authority for many remarkable untruths as to Philippine history (especially that of the rebellion in 1896 and subsequent events). To this 1899 edition, the original imperfections and the many vital errors of which are nearly all left uncorrected, Mr. Foreman has now, besides expanding somewhat the chapters on the Filipino rebellion against Spain, added eight chapters on the war with the United States and the American government of the Philippines, 1898-1905. In these new chapters he has corrected the wildly exaggerated statements he made in the *Contemporary Review* for September, 1904, but errors abound, and the omissions of vital data or events are frequent and sometimes more serious than the errors. A good review of American occupation of the Philippines is a desideratum, but such a work as this is of scant value to anyone.

Admirers of Thomas à Kempis cannot fail to be interested in J. P. Arthur's translation of his lives of Gerard Groote and his followers, and his "Chronicle of Mount St. Agnes" (London: Kegan Paul). Mr. Arthur has called his rendering of the lives, "The Founders of the New Devotion," the New Devotion being the name given to the religious movement, started in Holland by Master Gerard Groote (Gerard the Great) in the latter half of the fourteenth century. Gerard's object was the restoration of piety and morals, then sunk grievously low, and partly with this view he and his disciple, Florentius Radewin, planned the formation of societies known as "Brotherhoods of the Common Life," the members of which were to live together, but without taking vows, to support themselves by their own labor, and to devote much time to prayer and work for the poor. Sisterhoods were also formed on the same pattern. That these communities might not lack advice and assistance, regular monasteries were also founded. Among the earliest were those of Windesheim and Mount St. Agnes near Zwolle. This latter à Kempis entered as a young man, having received his previous training at the town school at Deventer, where Florentius and the house of the Brotherhood of the Common Life exercised great influence. A special interest thus attaches to Thomas's account of the Brothers and their institutions, and it is not a little surprising that his works on the subject have only now been rendered into English. The Rev. S. Kettlewell in his "Thomas à Kempis and the Brothers of the Common Life," contented himself with translating selected passages.

The title of President Henry Churchill King's "Letters to Sunday School Teachers" (The Pilgrim Press, $1 net) is misleading. It has nothing to do with religious instruction through the Sunday-school, nor with the principles and methods of teaching, but is concerned rather with doctrines and belief. It is a sort of primer in dogmatic theology, and should be classified in the library rather under Doctrinal Theology than under Sunday-schools. These are certainly sad, degenerate days, when our dogmatics come to us in pretty green and white booklets, deckle-edged, and paged at the bottom. How must the shade of the angelic Thomas move at the suggestion that this trifle be placed under the same category as his portly tomes! Calvin maintained the dignity of the queen of sciences, Pearson expounded the creed with proper gravity, and Hodge brought down mysteries from high heaven in three-volume ponderosity; but here we have the "great truths" of God and the soul made clear and satisfying to uninstructed minds in a few score, wide-margined pages, daintily covered in green and white. It is said that eminent divines occasionally preach in simple churches near their vacation residences clad in the negligée of the golf course rather than in the habiliments of the pulpit, and that the sermons are not altogether bad. Similarly with President King's *Summa Theologiæ*, its dress is certainly negligée, but its matter, so far as its modest limits allow, is not so bad. To be sure, the doctrine is not uncomfortably orthodox, but it is sincerely religious, and has the warmth of real piety. It endeavors to trace the way from the surest realities of experience to positive and satisfying religious convictions.

Parts 5 and 6 of Prof. Angelo de Gubernatis's "Dictionnaire International du Monde Latin," have followed each other so quickly that the work is completed in less than two years since it was begun. It contains over 1,500 double-column quarto pages, carrying some 10,000 biographical sketches. The editor regrets, in the final part, that many of the sketches are fragmentary, owing to the failure of their subjects to furnish adequate data, but he promises to make good this deficiency, so far as possible, in a supplement to be issued before the end of the year, and to comprise also corrections and a general index. This supplement will be sent without cost, except one lira for postage, to the original subscribers to the work: to others, the price will be seven lire. Professor de Gubernatis has produced a book of reference unique in scope and of permanent value. He has further given his subscribers nearly 50 per cent. more than he promised—an unusual instance of editorial generosity.

A much disputed point of recent history seems ready to be elucidated. Why was France left without allies to aid her at the beginning of her conflict with Germany in 1870? The revival of the controversy dates from the visit in July of ex-Empress Eugénie to Emperor Francis Joseph; which was said, very improbably, to have for its object the restoration of a letter written by the latter to Napoleon the Third shortly before the declaration of war and promising assistance. In 1878 Prince Napoleon accused the diplomacy of the French Empire of incompetence under the circumstances. Gen. Türr, the *alter ego* of Garibaldi, replied by stating that he had been as aide-de-camp of Victor Emanuel a confidential agent in secret negotiations, from 1864 to 1869, for the formation of a Franco-Austro-Italian alliance to counterpoise the disquieting growth of Prussia; like every one else he then attributed the failure of the proposed alliance to Napoleon the Third's unwillingness to hand over the Pope and Rome to Victor Emanuel. Emile Ollivier, French minister at the opening of war, now extracts from a forthcoming volume of his "Empire Libéral" documents showing that, among other things, the Emperor's Roman policy was his own, and not imposed on him by the Empress. Gen. Türr now adds to his former statements that he is certain the proposed Latin League against encroaching Pan-Germanism was rendered impossible by the intrigues of England and Prussia. The controversy, among these surviving political actors of the time, has become so heated that both Marquis Visconti-Venosta and Count Nigra, who was Italian Minister at Paris, announce the speedy publication of their own authoritative memoirs.

The lady who has so recently made a reputation under the name of "Pierre de Cou-

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levain," is apparently determined to live up to the time-honored adage of making hay while the sun shines. Her new book, "L'Ile inconnue" (Calmann-Lévy), shows signs of being old material hastily put together for publication to catch the present wave of Anglo-French cordiality. The unknown island is England, and the author's treatment strikes about midway between Max O'Rell and Emile Boutmy. A love story is woven in, and there are many clever observations, but the style is slipshod, and the pruning knife has not been used. The author has so much real talent that she can afford to produce a little more slowly and more carefully.

It is a sign of the times that a Brazilian should write a book in French and send it to an American weekly for review. His Excellency Sen. Nabuco, ambassador of Brazil to the United States, publishes through Hachette a volume entitled "Pensées détachées et Souvenirs." We observe with regret a marked note of disillusion in the book, which we hope does not arise from the nature of the author's duties. It is pleasing to reflect that a diplomat at Washington has leisure to frame moral aphorisms after the manner, if not in the style, of La Rochefoucauld. The diplomatic antagonists of the Brazilian ambassador should not fail to become acquainted with the interesting turn of mind his book reveals.

In our review of Holyoake's "History of Coöperation" the book was credited to the wrong publisher. It should be E. P. Dutton & Co.

Twenty-eight years ago an association was founded for the purpose of defending and propagating the principle of the universal protection of literary and artistic property. Victor Hugo was the first president of the Association Littéraire et Artistique Internationale, which now numbers four hundred members. Its annual congress will be held this year at Bucharest from September 21 to 26, when the question of admitting Rumania to the international copyright union, known as the Berne Convention, will be a leading topic for discussion.

The University Extension summer meeting at Cambridge, Eng., this year was of unusual interest. Large numbers of foreigners were present, America, Germany, Denmark, and Sweden having been especially well represented. Even China and Japan provided students. Among the foreign lecturers were professors from Bucharest and the Catholic University of Lille. Attention was concentrated on the eighteenth century, and though this limitation did not apply to the scientific courses, special note was taken of the great astronomers, botanists, and zoölogists of that century. The most encouraging feature was the representation of the working classes. Three years ago the Workers' Educational Association was formed to promote the higher education of work-people, and scholarships have been provided by it to send some of its most promising students to the summer meeting free of cost. Upwards of sixty delegates of the association attended a conference in Cambridge to discuss how free libraries could be made of greater service in the education of the people.

Professor von Behring, whose tuberculosis investigations are more than ever interesting the scientific world, recently made, to a party of French scientists, a more detailed statement of his achievements than has hitherto appeared. In this he affirmed that he had been able to prepare a fluid named "tulose," differing radically from Dr. Koch's tuberculin, by using which he had been able to check the infection of animals by malignant tuberculosis bacilli. He frankly admitted, however, that he had not yet succeeded in developing a serum similar to the diphtheritic antitoxin, and that he considered the future discovery of such a serum "extremely doubtful." Yet it was not impossible that by further experiment the "tulose" could be made to develop curative properties. Meanwhile, clinical experiments have shown that injections of this new fluid are of value in the treatment of children suffering from either tuberculosis or scrofulous troubles. Finally, Professor von Behring announced that, until further experiments have shown for just what uses "tulose" is best adapted, it will be dispensed only to a few select hospitals and clinics, which will pledge themselves to use it only in accordance with certain conditions prescribed by him. If this calm statement disappoints those who have already seen the white scourge disappearing before Dr. von Behring's magic, it is yet proof that a great scientific advance has really taken place.

According to circular 118, issued by the Harvard College Observatory, covering observations of Phœbe in May and June, 1906, six photographs of Saturn, showing images of Phœbe, have been obtained with the twenty-four-inch Bruce Telescope at Arequipa.

Luther W. Burbank's plant "creations," celebrated as they have become, have not yet added much to the every-day American table. Neither have the foreign plants introduced by the Department of Agriculture. But the two combined are likely to bring to market within the next few years an array of fruits and vegetables almost as varied as that of the tropics. Isaac F. Marcosson, who writes in the current *World's Work* on "Exploring for New Tropical Crops," names a long and wonderful list as within the immediate possibilities. Not only dates, pistache nuts, and citron are well established, but less familiar varieties. The Japanese udo is being introduced as a salad plant, and, cultivated in the Far West, has already been served on New York tables. The Javan mangosteen has been grown in America, and is to be followed by spineless, edible cacti from Spain.

Some important acquisitions have been recently made by various German museums. The Kaiser Friedrich Museum at Berlin has acquired the artist's sketch for the "Good Samaritan," by Rembrandt, at the Louvre; "The Fainting Lady," by Metsu; a "Madonna," attributed to Giovanni Bellini, and a *predella* by Lippo Lippi, with scenes from the childhood of St. Ambrose. The National Gallery at Berlin has acquired a picture of still life by Courbet; the Royal Library at Berlin, a copy of the "Mayence Psalterium" of 1459. The sale of this precious volume to America was already pending, but a national subscription was raised, and the owner was patriotic enough to accept £4,000 from a German institution in preference to a higher offer from abroad. The Wallraf Museum, Cologne, has acquired "Summer's Bliss," by Hans Thoma; a fine portrait of the artist and his wife, by Steinhausen; and paintings by Robert Haug, J. Bergmann, R. Jordan, and W. Schreuer. Menzel's painting of "Gustavus Adolphus Receiving His Wife at Hanau," one of the few large paintings by Menzel not yet in public keeping, has been added to the Municipal Museum of Leipzig.

The National Portrait Gallery, London, has recently acquired several interesting portraits. A study in oils of Samuel Johnson by Sir Joshua Reynolds for the well-known portrait at Knole, was presented by T. Humphry Ward. A water-color sketch by Charlotte Brontë, drawn in 1850, by her friend, Paul Héger of Brussels, has been purchased by the trustees. This sketch was acquired from the family of the artist about forty years ago, and since then has been in private hands. Another purchase is a small portrait in oils of Edward Gibbon, the famous historian, painted by Henry Walton; it is said to be the best extant likeness of the historian. A chalk-drawing of James Anthony Froude, by J. E. Goodall also figures on the list, as well as a portrait in oils of William Farren, the actor, and one of Samuel Cousins, the mezzotint-engraver.

The "Grande Medaille d'Emulation," offered by the French Government to the student receiving the greatest number of "values" in the first class in the École Nationale des Beaux Arts, has been won by George A. Licht, an American student of architecture. Licht is a "Prix de Paris," and holds a two years' scholarship offered by the "Société Beaux Arts Architects," composed of "Anciens Élèves" of the École in America.

The gold medals at the Venice international exhibition recently ended were awarded for painting to: Camarosa Hermen (Spain); Blanche, Simon, and Jacques (France); Karoly (Hungary); Innocenti (Italy); Larsen (Sweden); Shannon (United States); and Zugel (Germany). For sculpture the gold medal went to Bistolfi, an Italian.

The seventeenth annual exhibition of the New York Water Color Club will be held in the galleries of the American Fine Arts Society, No. 215 West Fifty-seventh Street, New York; opening to the public Saturday, November 10, and closing December 2.

Macmonnies has been appointed the sculptor for a monument, to be erected in Central Park, to perpetuate the memory of Joseph Jefferson. The statue will represent Jefferson in the character of Rip Van Winkle. The work will be life-size, wrought of bronze, and mounted on a pedestal of granite.

William Edgar Marshall, a portrait-painter, whose name once was much more familiar to the public than it is now, died last week, Wednesday, in this city, at the age of seventy-one. Beginning his career as an engraver at Washington, he attracted attention by engraved portraits of President Buchanan and Gen. Fremont. In the fifties well-wishers

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sent him to Paris to study. Returning here, he painted portraits of Charles H. Dana and Nathaniel Hawthorne that gave him a reputation. At various times he had such sitters as Lincoln, Grant, Sherman, and Longfellow.

TEXT BOOKS.

"A College Algebra" (Ginn & Co.), by Professor Fine of Princeton, is without a rival among English text-books of college algebra, whether it is judged in respect to style or in respect to spiritual solidarity. Ripe scholarship, patience, conscientiousness, expository power—all these were necessary, but (as the mathematicians say) not sufficient to produce the book. There was needed, besides, a certain just faith that interest and intelligibility are not sacrificed, but are enhanced by a serious regard to the logic of the subject. The result is a work in which algebra is made to appear in its proper character as a genuinely deductive science, as a rigorously concatenated structure of thought on a foundation of explicit assumptions. The treatise falls into two parts. The first (of 70 pages) deals with the number system as such, including both reals and imaginaries. The system as presented includes ideas usually reserved for graduate years. Professor Fine has happily rendered them really accessible to the beginner—an important and difficult achievement. Unfortunately, judgment regarding availability for classroom use will depend upon the habits and attainments of teachers. For Professor Oswald's recent statement that improvement in the teaching of chemistry meets its chief resistance in the inertia of teachers already formed, is, unhappily, valid in every branch of science. In the second part occur several departures from the usual arrangement of topics. These changes were dictated alike by didactic and by scientific considerations. We note especially the early introduction and use of the method of undetermined coefficients; of the "division transformation," and, in connection therewith, the emphasis placed upon the remainder theorem and synthetic substitution; the prominence accorded to the notion of graph of a function, and especially the introduction of that illuminating notion prior to the presentation of Sturm's theorem. On the other hand, as some will think, both earlier and greater stress might well have been laid on the method of mathematical induction. In the later chapters will be found a really scientific presentation of such cardinal matters as infinite series, infinite products, continued fractions, continuity of functions, functional oscillation, upper and lower limits, etc. The merit of these discussions is that the doctrines as presented will not require to be subsequently unlearned—a melancholy process to which the disciple of the traditional text is so cruelly condemned.

C. N. Schmall's "A First Course in Analytical Geometry" (D. Van Nostrand Co.) is a direct and energetic account of the conic sections, including the usual chapter on higher plane curves and a brief introduction to the geometry of three dimensions. The style, while it is in general clear enough, tends not infrequently to be a little slap-dash. Some of the demonstrations are excellent, as, *e. g.*, the proof that every linear equation in two variables represents a straight line. On the other hand, the attempted demonstration (p. 298) that "a single equation in three variables represents a surface" hardly supports the author's claim that "all proofs given are rigorous." The author's intention to exalt general method over specific matter is praiseworthy, but it ill consists with an exclusive use of the so-called "secant method" in tangent problems. In this connection it is a pleasure to refer to Candy's "Analytical Geometry," where the intention in question is admirably carried out. Mr. Schmall's frequent use of determinants and the abridged notation of Plücker and Bobillier is commendable, but his use of "sinister" and "dexter" to denote the left-hand and right-hand member of an equation is doubtless unhappy and injudicious. In the matter of nomenclature, it is sheer folly to try to tempt the real mathematician either to be the first by whom the new is tried or the last to lay the old aside.

"A Brief Course in the Calculus" (D. Van Nostrand) by Prof. William Cain, University of North Carolina, contains some well written sections, but the work is marred by frequent inaccuracies and infelicities both of thought and of expression. Descartes appears as Des Cartes (p. 1); continuous motion is motion without "hops"; and exception may be taken to the phraseology of some of the more technical definitions.

The "Projective Differential Geometry of Curves and Ruled Surfaces" (Teubner) is a notable work by Dr. E. J. Wilczynski, assistant professor of mathematics, at the University of California. The author says, "The instructor in an American university finds his time fully occupied by other things besides the advancement of science." This deliverance is doubtless too sweeping. American professors entirely free for research activity are very scarce, but the species is not unknown; in proof of which it is sufficient to refer to publications by the author himself prior to his appointment two years ago as associate of the Carnegie Institute of Washington. Nevertheless the present work is chiefly the result of investigations made by Professor Wilczynski in the capacity of such associate and would certainly have been much, it may be indefinitely, delayed, except for the freedom which the Carnegie Institution has enabled him to enjoy. Under the unbroken empire of Euclid, the birth of projective as distinguished from metric geometry was delayed for nearly two thousand years, and even then the times were inauspicious, for the genius of Desargues and Pascal dates with Fermat and Descartes and ante-dates but little the great years of Leibniz and Newton. The now famous Brouillon was even lost for two centuries. Meanwhile differential geometry had greatly flourished, and projective geometry was reborn in the genius of Poncelet and Plücker. But the former doctrine was *metric* and the latter, though algebraic, was not concerned with the *infinitesimal*. It is here, then, between these fields that Professor Wilczynski's domain, overlapping and penetrating them, is found—*projective differential* geometry. Halphen in an "admirable theory of plane and space curves" had already made a start in this field. The author's contribution consists in presenting by his own method Halphen's work anew and in greatly extending the researches, particularly to ruled surfaces.

Unlike the foregoing work, "The Theory of Functions of Real Variables," vol I. (Ginn & Co.), by Prof. James Pierpont, of Yale, is not of the nature of an addition to mathematical science as such, but it is not on that account a less difficult or less important performance, being a most admirable exposition of what in modern times has come to be regarded as the unshakable foundations of Analysis. "The work is based on lectures which the author is accustomed to give at Yale University on the advanced calculus and the theory of functions of real variables." Could the inventors of the calculus and those giants who during the succeeding two centuries boldly employed it to the great advancement of knowledge behold that instrument of investigation as transformed, chastened, perfected, by the master critics of the last generations, they would gaze at first in amazement. In such an exposition as that before us the student may catch something of the spirit that has wrought the transformation and gain acquaintance with the means and fundamental ideas of the masters of modern analysis, such as Cauchy, Gauss, Grassmann, Riemann, Wierstrass, Bolzano, Georg Cantor, Dedekind, Jordan, and others. Hitherto, in order to gain a knowledge of the best that has been done in the subject, it has been necessary to repair to foreign institutions; now it is no longer necessary to have recourse to foreign tongues, thanks to Professor Pierpont's simple and scholarly presentation of the matter in 555 pages. Some may not like the colloquial style of the author's discourse; some may not approve of the didactic Euclidian form of the exposition, notwithstanding its adaptation to the uses of reference and consultation; but every one will applaud the happy citation and criticism of current defects of argument.

The general public has taken very little interest in discoveries in physics of the last few years, although they are fairly revolutionary in character, and bear directly on many philosophical and practical questions. One reason for this apparent indifference has been the difficulty of getting readable and comprehensible accounts of the recent advances in science. But this difficulty no longer can serve as an excuse. Professor Rutherford has given us a comprehensive and thoroughly scientific treatment of the subject in his "Radio-Activity" (Macmillan); and Professor Duncan in "The New Knowledge" (Barnes), has presented it in a lighter and somewhat sensational style; and now Professor Jones of Johns Hopkins has published a book intermediate between these, well adapted to bringing one's physics up to date ("The Electrical Nature of Matter and Radio-Activity," D. Van Nostrand Co.). It is comprehensible to any one who has studied college physics, but Professor Jones takes no pains to present his facts in a striking way by either verbal or pictorial illustrations.

We may note together two text-books

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which have a great similarity, being intended for the same class of students, the last of the high school or the first of the college, and they come from the same laboratory, that of the University of Chicago. ("Physics," by Charles Riborg Mann and George Ransom Twiss: Scott, Foresman & Co.—"A First Course in Physics," by Robert Andrews Millikan and Henry Gordon Gale. Ginn & Co.). Both are practical text-books, modern in matter and method, and printed and illustrated in the handsome style to which our school-book publishers have accustomed us. Both have final chapters on the recent discoveries in radio-activity and the electron theory. Professor Mann has cut out no small part of the dead wood which usually encumbers text-books on physics, such as descriptions of antiquated apparatus and old formulae, to make room for machines in commercial use and newer mathematical treatment. He is determined to make physics real and practical to the student, and among other devices to accomplish this end he has put on almost every page a small photographic illustration. Professor Millikan has given considerable space to the illustrative experiments which he is so skilful at inventing, and tries to interest the student in the biography of the science by full-page portraits of distinguished physicists from Archimedes to J. J. Thomson.

The variations in the principles and construction of dynamos and motors are so numerous that it is difficult to prepare a text-book which shall be at once comprehensive and manageable. In his "Alternating Currents: Their Theory, Generation, and Transformation" (Van Nostrand & Co.), Alfred Hay has given much material in small space; he not only describes standard tests and machines, but includes a large amount of new matter hitherto scattered in the journals. The only drawback is that he has thus crowded the space devoted directly to the theory of alternating currents. These chapters should have been expanded or omitted altogether. A student not already grounded in the subject will not be able to follow this part of the book, and, on the other hand, it is too fully developed for a mere reference manual. Modern texts on engineering are not made any too attractive. What with the elimination of all but skeleton outlines of results, the abbreviation of words and phrases, and the barbarous nomenclature introduced by electrical engineers, these books are, to say the least, not milk for babes. The engineering student would not be hurt by a little more polish and ease of expression, and the best way for him to obtain these would be from his college text-books.

Professor Linville has charge of the biological work in the DeWitt Clinton High School of New York city, and his "Text-Book in General Zoölogy" (Ginn & Co.) is designed to cover the whole field of zoology in as complete and practical a manner as the time allotted to such a course will permit. It includes both laboratory and field work on representatives of each group, and, besides being comprehensive and accurate, is readable. In place of the old stock cuts, it has been freshly illustrated with a large number of original drawings direct from nature. In the pictures and in the text especial attention is paid to the relations of animals to their environment and to each other, to the presentation of a complete picture of the life of a particular locality.

Good plays, it is said, are never written; they are rewritten. The same is true of good text-books. Professor Smith is, therefore, justified in thinking that his work is the better for having grown gradually from the needs of his fifteen years' teaching in the University of Chicago. ("Introduction to General Inorganic Chemistry," by Alexander Smith: The Century Co.). This is a very complete college text-book, containing a large amount of descriptive and explanatory matter, similar in scope and character to the inorganic chemistry of Gooch and Walker, published last year by the Macmillan Co. The author has attempted nothing revolutionary in the order of presentation and in the treatment of topics. The hypotheses and conceptions of the science are introduced gradually where they are most needed. The atomic theory is postponed until the student has acquired a sufficient number of facts to make him appreciate its help. The ionic theory is used freely, but not extravagantly. It is useless to recommend a text-book because it has to fit the teacher, but we can say that any college instructor ought to take this book into consideration in selecting his class text.

"A Text-Book of Sanitary and Applied Chemistry, or the Chemistry of Water, Air, and Food," by E. H. S. Bailey is issued by the Macmillan Co. This somewhat cumbrous title is necessary because we have no convenient name for the new science of the household, which is coming to be a popular course in many high schools and colleges. It has had to be taught by lectures because the information is scattered in the innumerable bulletins and reports of experiment stations, and in the technical journals. In this book, however, Professor Bailey has brought together much of the material which he has used for his lectures on domestic economy in the University of Kansas, and made of it a practical class text-book. It includes chapters on the atmosphere, fuels, cleaning, sewage disposal, the composition of foods, the detection of adulterations, and the balancing of dietaries, illustrated with 150 students' experiments.

AN ENGLISH VIEW OF HAMILTON.

Alexander Hamilton. An Essay on American Union. By Frederick Scott Oliver. With portraits and a map. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.75.

A life of Hamilton by an Englishman is a novelty, and we have read Mr. Oliver's biography with interest to see in what new light a career so distinguished, but so well known, could be reëxamined. Of course, new facts are hardly to be expected. No life has been more minutely searched by friend and foe alike, than Hamilton's; not merely since his death, but from the moment when he appeared on the stage, haranguing a public body at the age of seventeen, to the hour of his unfortunate end. An extraordinarily frank and courageous man, he had no pose for the public which concealed his real character. He played no part, he wore no mask. His professed opinions and objects were always his real opinions and objects. From first to last he laid himself bare to observation, and to detection, if there were anything to detect. Involved in a most serious scandal, raising a doubt as to his official integrity, he cleared himself by a confession of the real wrong done so palpably truthful as to convince his most rancorous slanderers. Mr. Oliver has painted a good picture of the man, but it differs mainly in vividness from those which we have already. Like every one who comes into contact with Hamilton, Mr. Oliver is filled with admiration of him, made enthusiastic by his enthusiasm, sees with his eyes, hears with his ears, is persuaded by his eager and cogent reasoning, animated by his fiery zeal. In narrating the story, the author becomes a Federalist himself, and his account of the Democrats headed by Jefferson, and "the politicians" of whom Burr was the type, is not very different from the impression they made upon Hamilton himself.

Hamilton's enemies called him an adventurer—a convenient term, for it is capable of a double meaning. In the sense that he loved adventure, and that his whole career was a great venture—he was a new man, without family or "backing"—it was true. In the sense that his allegiance was to be had by those who would offer most for it, the term was ridiculously false. What the author says on this point can hardly be improved upon:

> It is not without importance that upon the appearance of the first pamphlet Hamilton was approached by the Loyalist party with flattering offers of employment if he would transfer his services to the other side. Such proposals must have been attractive, not only on account of his youth and poverty, but for the further reason that so many of his sympathies were bound up with the ideas of monarchy and a settled Constitution. His prompt rejection of the offer is all the more remarkable, when we remember that it has been the ignorant habit of Democrat historians to write of him as if he had been a pure adventurer, and that even in recent times apologies for his career and appreciations of his character, with equal ignorance and less excuse, have tacitly assumed the justice of the charges. Only in the most romantic sense can Hamilton be termed an adventurer: only because he was a young man from a strange land seeking adventure; never because he sold his sword. A character less mercenary, and less concerned in any personal advancement, save as a means of rendering better service to the State, has never played a part upon the public stage. To the Dugald Dalgettys of history he bore no resemblance save in his courage; and if we are in search of an analogy we shall find it rather among the Knights of the Round Table than among the soldiers of fortune (p. 32).

Better, perhaps, than any of his previous biographers, Mr. Oliver has seized upon the salient features of Hamilton's temper and ambition. Enthusiastic as he was from boyhood, his enthusiasm was different from that of most of those with whom he was associated. Freedom, equality, even independence, were not by him worshipped as abstractions, as ends in themselves. They were all means to an end—the welfare of the Commonwealth. That just and orderly administration of affairs in the common interest which is the key to the happiness of States, was his ideal. "For all his love of freedom, his hatred of lawlessness was the stronger passion. Both, indeed, had their origin in his detestation of injustice and oppression." A generous and fiery devotion to justice is unhappily rare

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among political leaders. United as it was in Hamilton's case with extraordinary political sagacity and power of exposition, and oratorical gift, he stands as the most interesting figure of the Revolutionary period. The "Oracle" of the patriots, he did not hesitate to risk his hold upon his party by resisting mob violence directed against persons suspected of Tory leanings.

In one important respect the book differs from all previous lives of Hamilton. It is written for an English audience and with a definite English purpose. Mr. Oliver is a Protectionist and a believer in "federation," and his object is evidently to show that as Hamilton planned and secured the adoption of a union among the emancipated colonies of Great Britain, expounding to them meanwhile the doctrine of Protection, so that they became in a hundred years one of the greatest of modern states—so might an English Hamilton of our day by some such means bring about a federation of the colonies and dependencies of Great Britain with the parent state. Here the book is, to our minds, distinctly weak; the author has nothing definite to propose, while the greatness of Hamilton lay, as he very clearly shows, in his ability not merely to dream of a Union, but to plan the whole charter of a confederated state, and to demonstrate in advance to the satisfaction of the communities affected that it was feasible. Had the author seriously asked himself how his dream of imperialist federation was to be carried out, he would have perceived at once that the cases were not only not parallel, but unlike at every point. The communities which Hamilton guided into federation were sovereign states, already linked together in a loose union, which had not to be invented, but to be improved and made more effective. Their governments and institutions were already democratic and homogeneous; to form a real union they had but to turn over to a central authority powers of which they had already a complete knowledge, and with the limits and scope of which they were perfectly familiar. Great Britain, on the contrary, is an established empire, of which the colonies and dependencies are bound to the parent state by an ancient system, which mingles great central authority with great local freedom. The British Empire is now a union of its own sort, and what is proposed is to change it into a union of some different sort. But the question is, of what sort, and by what means. Mr. Oliver draws no picture of what his union would be, nor suggests the means by which he would introduce it. To say that it could be introduced by Protection certainly derives no support from anything in the work of Hamilton. The Constitution introduced Free Trade between the States. If Great Britain copied us, the first step would be to bring to an end the existing system by which the colonies protect themselves, not only against foreign states, but against the mother country. How is this to be done? Mr. Oliver makes no attempt to answer the question. He gives us instead a fair account of Hamilton's report on manufactures, in which Hamilton showed, what no one, we believe, at the present day doubts, that Protection may be made an effective weapon in a young and wholly agricultural state to stimulate and diversify industry. It is a wild jump from this to the conclusion which Mr. Oliver's "Essay on American Union" is intended to enforce.

The author devotes a chapter to "The Federalist," but makes no examination of its contents. Although he contrasts it with "The Prince" and with "The Spirit of Laws," he does not explain why it is a great political book; except that its chief author succeeded in carrying the plan of the Union through, against violent opposition, and that the Government of which he was one of the founders turned out a success. But there is no analysis, and the author seems to be one of those who discredit all political philosophy, a branch of science which he speaks of as having since Hamilton's day "drawn in its horns." This method of treatment is far from satisfactory. The author is puzzled to know how it was that Hamilton changed a hostile majority of two to one in New York into a majority for the Constitution. Mr. Oliver says, oddly enough, that the explanation is that while "The Federalist" is "pure advocacy," it appears to the reader to be "a reasoned judgment." The fact is, of course, that "The Federalist" is an argument addressed to a popular audience—the public itself—in favor of a plan of government—a political scheme, or charter—approved by the reasoned judgment of its advocate. It was the soundness of the reasoning that changed the obstinate majority of Clinton into a minority; and this is what makes the adoption of the Constitution the crowning act of Hamilton's life. In the pages of "The Federalist" we find the foundations of his reasoned judgment, and they are no other than those very principles of political science which Mr. Oliver thinks we have got beyond, but which Hamilton believed in with all the fervid conviction of his nature. Hamilton was a political philosopher, just as Burke was, and as Montesquieu had been before him. But he was a statesman, too, and was one of the few men in the history of the world who found the opportunity as a statesman to enact a scheme of government based in great part upon the philosophical principles which for him were the foundations of all government. This is what makes "The Federalist" a great book, in the opinion of all who believe that there are principles underlying the art of governing man. Hamilton's philosophy was the guide of his inspiration. We miss here any satisfactory account of it.

Mr. Oliver says in his preface that "no adequate life of Hamilton has yet been written," and modestly adds that he does not suppose himself capable of supplying the deficiency. To our minds, his narrative is by far the most interesting and vivid account that has yet been published; but, being neither a publicist nor an economist—and, if the truth must be told, having an opportunist's scorn for all principles of government—he is positively disqualified from the task of estimating Hamilton's work. To perform this, the biographer must be another Hamilton himself, at least as far as acquirements and mastery of principle go. He must unite with this, the generous capacity for sympathy which has enabled Mr. Oliver to seize upon and paint vividly the scenes of an heroic and even inspired career.

SIR RICHARD BURTON.

The Life of Sir Richard Burton. By Thomas Wright. 2 vols. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $6.50 net.

When a man's life has been written five times in eleven years, it is for the sixth adventurer to show that the lists are still open. Especially if the subject has unhealthy aspects, he must make it very clear that the previous attempts were fatally inadequate and misleading, and that his own work will bring us at least near the end of a disagreeable matter. He must not only have full and fresh information as to his subject, but he must have a broad and exact knowledge of the matters involved and ample tact in handling them. Our business is to get, as soon as we can, to a broadly correct estimate of a man who had in him undoubted elements of greatness, and to be clear as soon as we can of the repellent mass of uncleanness and prurient curiosity which has so long been associated with him. Gossip and chatter have here no place.

Unfortunately, Mr. Wright is a born gossiper, and his chatter would be oppressive were it not so light. Lack of restraint is shown on almost every page, and he drops out-of-place remarks like the suggestion (ii, 95) of a notice in public libraries against King Yunan's method of turning over a leaf. Trivial anecdotes are his specialty. He boasts in his preface that about fifty are entirely new, and he indexes them carefully under "anecdote." These chronicle such important matters as Burton's rudeness—under great provocation—to Mr. Gladstone; how he swore at a waiter; how he quoted the rhyme of "Miss Baxter"; how he was recognized ecstatically here, and had limitations there. On another side it is only the license of the biographer when he enormously exaggerates the achievements of his subject. Burton was certainly, on no count, the first geographer of his day (ii, 25) nor the greatest English Oriental scholar (ii, 249), and even to speak of him as a great anthropologist or a great archæologist is to strain terms dangerously. In general knowledge, also, Mr. Wright unfortunately fails. He cannot follow and test Burton in his miscellaneous learning, and he is astounded by commonplaces of quotation. He is in ignorance of the relative standing of scholars; at E. H. Palmer, a far better linguist and Orientalist than Burton, he can poke fun (i, 209; ii, 43); and his remarks on Lane, certainly the greatest English Arabist, and on his translation of the "Nights," in some important respects better than any other, are simply absurd (i, xiii, 130; ii, 53, 54). The same ignorance appears again and again in dealing with Arabic and Oriental subjects. Mr. Wright is no specialist, but a *littérateur* at large, handling a very slippery matter, and even a specialist may easily come to grief over the "Arabian Nights."

What, then, is the justification of this book? What new point of view does it take, and what new facts does it offer? The justification, it may be said, is complete, in spite of Mr. Wright's weaknesses. Of all the five preceding books about Burton, its only real rival is that of Mr. Wilkins, which dealt with Burton only indirectly. The others were *Tendenz-schriften*, polemics by Lady Burton or by Burton's family, and unscrupulous at that. In the pres-

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ent volumes we have a really fair attempt, without marked bias, to get at the facts in the case and to show Burton as he was. Of course, the objectivity is far from perfect. The hero-worshipping was to be expected and can be discounted. But the attitude towards Lady Burton is less explicable. In spite of general admissions of her good influence upon her husband, of her untiring and often successful labors on his behalf, of her essential nobility and sweetness, and even of her intellectual quickness and originality, Mr. Wright loses no opportunity of making damaging remarks about her and of exhibiting her generally in a ludicrous light. Her excellent, but unschoolmastered English style especially arouses him, and that she, like Robert Louis Stevenson, never could learn to spell marks her, for him, as "uneducated." It is true that her character, with its frankness and enthusiasms, often lent itself to too easy ridicule, but the woman who held the love and respect of Richard Burton through almost thirty years of married life, who wrote "The Inner Life of Syria" and her autobiography, and who passed triumphantly through the test of the "Scented Garden," should not have been subjected to such belittling.

The new facts bear almost entirely on the translation of the "Arabian Nights," but are significant, also, for Burton's character. That he, in that translation, had curious indebtednesses to Mr. Payne was tolerably evident; he had, indeed, claimed the right to transfer to his own pages from those of Payne, Lane, or Torrens any rendering which seemed inevitable, but few guessed how inevitable the enormous mass of Mr. Payne's version had seemed to him to be. Mr. Wright compares them and finds pages with only a word changed here and there, not often for the better. He finds, further, that Burton's story of his translation is fundamentally false. When Payne's translation appeared, Burton had no written materials except a list of the contents of the first Bulaq edition, which was the only one he had, so far, used. Burton's version, then, is fundamentally Payne's with certain changes. (1) The verse is all different; some of it may, indeed, antedate Payne, as it was the verse which Burton had arranged with Steinhäuser to do. (2) The first few pages are enormously expanded and paraphrased, with what object is not clear. The same thing is occasionally done elsewhere; thus one complete anecdote is inserted on the principle that it should be in the "Nights" if it was not. (3) An attempt is made to bring the tone of the whole nearer that of the original. That Burton was not a book-Arabic scholar is now admitted, but, through his familiarity with the East, he had a very precise feeling for the language and tone of these stories and knew that Mr. Payne had missed it by miles. Their combination of Biblical simplicity, rank rolling rhetoric and drastic slang and vulgarity he thought he could reproduce on literal principles; simplicity with simplicity, rhetoric with rhetoric, slang with slang. Mr. Payne had reduced and polished until the "Nights" were trimmed down if not to decent, at least to polite society; Villon was made to go as Boccaccio. So Burton took "Payne" as a basis, and made most unjustifiably broad use of it. Yet he did put upon his book a separate stamp. Those who can stand its artistically jarring style will get indefinitely nearer the real "Arabian Nights" than through the smoothness of Mr. Payne. (4) He added an elaborate and very peculiar commentary. Of this Mr. Wright thinks far too highly, just as he fails to appreciate Burton's restoration of the tone of the text. There are stray bits of real observation and information in it here and there, but Burton was always an amateur in the weak sense, and when his "learning" is most rampant, its second-hand, catch-word nature is plainest. A good example is that very note on circumcision, with which Mr. Wright is so impressed (ii., 122).

All this throws a peculiar light on Burton's sense of literary morality. The origin, too, of the method is plain from a remark of Mr. Wright, though he does not, himself, make the connection. Payne had issued five hundred copies only, and had pledged himself to print no more. The demand far exceeded that supply, and Burton actually suggested that he should reprint in his own name and account to Payne for the profits. Of course, Payne refused, and Burton seems then to have reprinted in his own fashion as well as in his own name (ii, 52). We find him also suggesting to Payne to change the order of the tales so that each volume may close with something peculiarly attractive (ii, 43).

Another and still more painful aspect of Burton is that developed by the episode of the "Scented Garden." There is no need to dwell upon it here. Mr. Wright only adds some color and heightens the pathos of the old man ending his life in his repulsive labor of love. Two things stand out very clearly: one, that the subject had become a true monomania with Burton and had destroyed the sense of comparative importance, never strong in him; and, another, that he had observed the money which could be made with "curious" books, and had wittingly set himself to pander to that taste. In what proportion these motives worked upon him it may be impossible to say; certain is the presence of both. Mr. Wright's hope that he can produce a life of Burton in drawing-room table form is naturally vain. His verbal restraint and suppressions will only excite curiosity.

What then, is left of Burton after all this biographizing? It can be put in brief. He was an adventurer rather than an explorer. From his journeys he brought little back, and he hardly ever accomplished what he set out to do. His "Pilgrimage" is his one clean-cut and finished bit of work, and even in that he did not carry out his programme. Again, he was a linguist, in the most colloquial sense, rather than a scholar. His book-knowledge and the lists of names he was fond of parading were always got up for the occasion. If he once knew Arabic grammatically, it seems certain that he had forgotten it. Steingass's notes to the "Supplemental Nights" and his version of "Aladdin" contrasted with Payne's made that clear long ago. But though his knowledge of book Arabic was probably not a tithe of even that of Payne, and though as a translator he was most untrustworthy, yet he had so steeped himself in the life and thoughts of the Muslim East that he was an interpreter of the highest value. If his "Arabian Nights" is often grotesque, repulsive, and inaccurate, the student will always find it full of suggestion and atmosphere. His world is the world of the East, far from the trimmed topiaries and Italian garden effects of Payne. The same curse of the amateur, further, is over him in his archæology and anthropology. Yet in both he was an amateur full of fertile suggestion and reckless courage. It is hard for the present generation to realize how narrow and mealy-mouthed anthropology was in its beginnings. That that stage is passed was largely Burton's work, and the present commonplaces of anthropology were the horrors discussed by him. Perhaps his real excesses in language and taste were needed to bring this about; certainly, his reputation was for long the victim of his work, and his character, almost his reason in the end, suffered under the dominance of a fixed circle of ideas.

It may be hoped that we have now, in this book, supplemented as it must be by the other five, the last of Sir Richard Burton. But much undoubtedly remains untold, including some matters of real interest. In spite of the wealth of information and photographs with which Mr. Wright has illustrated Burton's circle of friends and helpers, there are curious gaps. One important gap concerns Burton's attitude to the phenomena of spiritism. Another concerns the question of his relation to the Roman Catholic Church. That the constant dripping of his wife's words and example may have, in the end, worn through his cynicism no one who had observed his interest in the mystical side of the system of the Roman Church could absolutely deny. Such men as he are caught on the rebound; the mystery of life does its work; and with advancing years the wager of Pascal assumes a different aspect. His girding at the different forms of Christianity had become a bad habit only. Such points are still left, but our final hope must be that this is the end, and that the hates and loves, the weakness and strength, the achievements and failures of Sir Richard Burton may now rest in peace. And the final moral is, how little we really know of the man in spite of all these books.

Entomology, with special reference to its biological and economic aspects. By Justus Watson Folsom. Philadelphia: Blakiston, Son & Co. $3 net.

Entomology includes within its view the greatest number of living creatures known in any one division of zoölogy. One might speak of insects as an "innumerable host"; for the number of existing species, of which over three hundred thousand are listed, must greatly exceed a million. It is not strange, therefore, that those who are interested in the study of animal life should have turned freely to them. Besides, they are so approachable by the unskilled, and many of them so attractive in their manners, that they have won the notice and engaged the thought of nature-lovers, especially of the young. Not a few men and women who have reached the highest distinction as naturalists, have begun their careers as tyros in entomology. Among those who have persisted in their first love and found their life work in the vast domain of insect life, is Professor Folsom of

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the University of Illinois, whose "Entomology" is before us. The facts above stated—not to speak of the economic importance of insects—explain the appearance of the many books on entomology recently published. Most of them are well worth printing; some already have become classics. But "there is always room at the top"; an adage which one feels like applying to Professor Folsom's work. It easily takes rank not only with the best treatises on entomology, but among those which modern zoölogical science has produced.

The book has been written avowedly to meet the demand for a biological treatment of entomology. That end has been kept in view, leaving details of classification and habits and general relations to specialists in those departments. Yet the author gives briefly the fundamental facts upon which insect classification rests, together with an outline of the latest accepted system. Most naturalists and all laymen will approve his conservative attitude (p. 247) in the matter of species-making, which depends so much upon the good judgment of the systematist. He, if wise, is neither a "lumper" nor a "splitter"—shunning equally the tendency to break down the walls of well-established species, and the temptation to minute subdivision upon fanciful or insufficient characters, and thus to multiply generic and specific names to the sacrifice of the student's convenience and of the stability of nomenclature.

The chapters on "Anatomy and Physiology," and the closely related one on "Development"—embryological, not evolutionary—have a chief place, covering more than one-third of the 408 pages of text. Although adequately treated, in view of the limitations of the volume, one could wish that even more space had been given to such subjects as the so-called "music" of insects treated under the sense of "hearing"; and "luminosity," which is taken up under the physiology of the fat-system.

The chapters on "Color and Coloration" and "Adaptive Coloration" call up many interesting subjects, including that of "mimicry," which are presented with the author's characteristic sanity. In some cases the zeal, or perhaps one should say the imagination, of writers, has quite run away with their discretion; so that many assumed examples of "protective resemblance" are far-fetched. Yet it is certain that such a fact exists in nature and is particularly striking among insects. The pages given to this subject are crowded with interesting information and suggestions, which aim not so much at brilliant theories and original discoveries as at an intelligent abstract of existing knowledge. And this is the controlling motive of the book.

In the several chapters on the relations of insects to plants, to other animals, to one another, and to man, and on "Insect Behavior," the field of ethology—to use Professor Wheeler's apt term for studies of animal habits—is opened up. This gives the author the opportunity to present some typical examples of those wonderful ways of our "little brothers" of the insect world which have won the attention of so many observers in all ages. This discussion runs into the important subject of economic entomology, which the Agricultural Department of our Government officially represents, and with which our whole citizenship is deeply concerned. The story of how the relationship of certain diseases to certain insects, especially the mosquito and the fly, was discovered and demonstrated, with its rare examples of high devotion to science, to duty, and to humanity, and its list of noble martyrs, is far too briefly told herein. It is to be hoped that it will never lose its power to win the attention and awake the admiration of those who read or hear it.

The Entomological Bureau of the Agricultural Department is fittingly noticed, and the reasons for its existence shown in the character of those insect destroyers that yearly mulct farmers, planters, stockmen, fruit-growers, gardeners, and florists in the sum of over three hundred millions of dollars.

The author's style is simple, concise, and lucid. His treatment of other writers is uniformly generous and just. He has made a book that will fill a real need. It is a book for public libraries; for scientific men; for physicians; for those who, lacking time and opportunity to take up the details of systematic and ethological entomology, wish to have at hand a volume of reference on general entomology which gives in brief and authentic and sufficiently popular form the latest results of the science. One of the most valuable features of the book is the large and well-chosen bibliography, which covers a vast field of entomological literature. Its topical arrangement greatly adds to its convenience and value. As a matter of course there is a full and satisfactory index.

La Révolution Française et les poètes anglais (1789-1809). By Charles Cestre. Paris: Hachette & Cie.

At the beginning of his volume M. Cestre complains not without reason that the English critics have maintained toward French revolutionary influence on their national literature "a conspiracy of silence." In spite of Professor Dowden's "French Revolution and English Literature," and some other recent studies, English criticism, as a whole, continues to be provincial in this respect. Hazlitt says of Horne Tooke that "he had none of the grand whirling movements of the French Revolution, nor of the tumultuous glow of rebellion in his head or in his heart." Hazlitt not only experienced these "grand whirling movements" himself, but in the closing pages of his lectures on the English Poets has pointed out the close relationship between the revolutionary spirit and the innovations of his great poetical contemporaries. It was left for a Frenchman, M. Legouis, to make the first scholarly study of this interdependence in his excellent volume on "The Early Life of Wordsworth." M. Cestre, besides adding to M. Legouis's material on Wordsworth, has extended the inquiry to Coleridge and Southey, and some of the minor figures of the movement. The chapter on the origins of English romanticism (pp. 231-341) is a very necessary supplement to the books of Professor Beers and Professor Phelps on the same topic. The eighteenth century English influences that these writers enumerate—Spenserian and Miltonian revivals, Percy's Reliques, Ossian, etc.—only succeeded in producing what M. Cestre terms classico-romanticism, a mixed genre still marked by pseudo-classic artificiality. Wordsworth's early work ("Descriptive Sketches," etc.) is of this transition type. The decisive step from "Descriptive Sketches" to "Guilt and Sorrow," the first poem truly Wordsworthian in both theme and diction, was taken under the stress of emotion called forth by the progress of the Revolution. But then, according to Professor Beers, Wordsworth is not a romanticist at all! M. Cestre is worth hearing on this point. "Wordsworth," he says, "is romantic by his antagonism to traditional poetry, his return to nature, his rehabilitation of the humble, his passionate expression of the elementary emotions, his idealizing of the commonplace, his mystical raptures, his conception of the poetical priesthood, his subjectivity." He is above all romantic by his endeavor to throw over the objects of every-day life something of the fresh wonder of the dawn.

One evidently gets deeper into romanticism by calling it the Renascence of Wonder than by restricting the term with Professor Beers to the revival of the middle ages. Certain of M. Cestre's chapters (*Enthousiasme concret*, etc.) would suggest that a still more vital definition would be the Renascence of Enthusiasm. In its essence, his book is a study of the awakening of enthusiasm in Wordsworth, Coleridge, and Southey by the Revolution; of the shock of disillusion that came to all three poets, not so much as the result of the revolutionary excesses, as of the invasion of the sister republic of Switzerland by the French armies; finally of the survival in some measure of the original enthusiasm for humanity even into the period of conservatism and Tory reaction.

The volume would perhaps have gained in living interest if M. Cestre had followed a method more intimately biographical, if he had gathered together into a connected narrative all the material bearing on each one of the poets, instead of scattering this material under a number of rather abstract chapter-headings. The subject is treated with a philosophic seriousness, one is tempted to add solemnity, that detracts in places from purely literary amenity. If there is too much philosophy for the literary reader, there is not always enough for the reader who believes that there are other possible outlooks on life besides that of the humanitarian enthusiast. The book is in the main a model of scholarly objectivity. Yet one is reminded occasionally that the author is himself, as would appear from another volume he has recently published in English,* a humanitarian with socialistic leanings. In dealing with the Utopian reveries of his heroes, he displays almost an excess of sympathy. His exposition of Coleridge's philosophy, for instance, admirable as it is in some respects, makes one regret the crisp and at times caustic good sense with which the

* *John Thelwall, a Pioneer of Democracy*, By Charles Cestre. London: Swan, Sonnenschein & Co. In addition to the published material, M. Cestre has drawn on unpublished MSS. of Thelwall's and has produced an interesting study of the beginnings of English radicalism.

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classical Nisard dissects the whole tribe of Utopists in his chapter on Rousseau. And then, too, a touch of dry irony of the kind of which Leslie Stephen was a master would have just suited the exquisite absurdities of Pantisocracy and the dream of an ideal colony on the banks of the Susquehanna. In a book that traces sentimental humanitarianism in England back to its source, M. Cestre might profitably have devoted all his psychological acumen to marking the ultimate differences between the humanitarian and the non-humanitarian views of life. Instead, he takes the humanitarian view too much for granted. He apparently reserves the term "idealist" for the man who, in Wordsworth's phrase, has made "society his glittering bride." He praises Southey for having preserved, in spite of his disillusions, "la passion de vertu." Yet what a very modern notion of virtue this is! Rousseau is really the first who raised virtue to the dignity of a passion, much as the elder Dumas said that he had raised history to the dignity of the novel. Rousseau, indeed, is the father of the sentimental humanitarians by his substitution of enthusiasm and sympathy for restraint as the foundation of ethics.

M. Cestre has shown a correct artistic instinct in translating the passages from his English authors that he has incorporated in his text. At the same time, his book would have had more value for students and teachers of literature in America and England, if he had uniformly given his originals either at the foot of the page or in an appendix. As a whole, the volume deserves to take its place alongside Legouis's "Wordsworth" and Angellier's "Burns." Like these books, it was prepared to satisfy the requirements for the French doctorate, and like them combines accurate scholarship with broad and mature generalization. This is a union of qualities that one does not look for in an American doctor's thesis, and perhaps has no right to look for under present conditions for the granting of the degree.

Orígenes de la Novela. Tomo I. Introducción. Tratado histórico sobre la primitiva novela española por M. Menéndez y Pelayo. Madrid: Bailly-Baillère é Hijos.

With this volume the "Nueva Biblioteca de Autores Españoles" is splendidly inaugurated by its chief editor, Don Marcelino Menéndez y Pelayo. Writing, as is his wont, in an excellent style, entirely free from the fatuously pompous and involved rhetoric in which so many Spaniards take delight, Menéndez gives us the opening chapters of an account of the tale and the novel in his native land. His history, when completed, will serve as an introduction to an edition of tales and novels not included in the old "Biblioteca de Autores Españoles." It has a distinct entity of its own as a storehouse of information regarding the subject treated. Replete as it is with facts, which are accompanied by the critical views of a competent judge and embellished with valuable bibliographical notes, the work will supersede a large part of the Dunlop-Liebrecht "History of Prose Fiction."

By way of preface to his main subject, the author outlines the history of narrative fiction in ancient Greece and Rome. This is no perfunctory performance on his part, for he has thoroughly explored the field of classic letters, as all know who have used his "Ideas Estéticas" and his manifold critical essays. For Menéndez, as for most critics, the novel is a secondary literary form. It represents the ultimate degeneration of the epopee, and therefore did not and could not exist in the really classic age of Greek literature. Classic Greek has no genuine novel, unless, perhaps, the "Cyropædia" be classified as historical romance, and certainly the Alexandrian, the Greco-Roman, and the Byzantine periods are those most important for the development of the novelesque. At the same time, an undeniable prelude to the coming novel is found in Lucian, with his imaginary accounts of journeys, his remnants of Milesian tales, his philosophical allegories and the like.

Greek shows hardly any trace of the realistic novel of manners. In Rome, however, this form is clearly present in the work of Petronius and in that of Apuleius. The former has influenced modern literature only slightly, but the latter's "Golden Ass" has inspired a large number of dramatic and novelistic productions, and it is Menéndez y Pelayo's opinion that most of our autobiographical novels, and especially the Spanish picaroon genre of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, owe something to Apuleius. This hint of a literary source for at least a part of the make-up of the Spanish novel of roguery, is interesting and plausible; it has been too readily assumed that the "Lazarillo" and its kindred are of wholly native inspiration.

Passing now to the body of his treatise, Menéndez y Pelayo surveys the course of the Oriental apologue and tale in the West and particularly in Spain. Upon the history of the "Kalila and Dimna" and the "Sindibad" legends he dwells with due regard to their significance, and he traces the Oriental heritage down through the productions of leading authors of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, among them Juan Manuel and the Archpriest of Talavera.

One of the most attractive divisions of the volume is that devoted to the chivalrous romance. In this chiefly exotic form he notes many borrowed factors. Thus, contributions were made by the Carolingian and Breton cycles, by the Italian romances of chivalry that hark back thereto, by the mediæval history of Troy, by the Greco-Oriental novels exemplified by the "Floire et Blanchefleur," by the stories of the Crusades, and so on. But, strange to say, Menéndez believes that the vast mass of chivalrous literature made no very strong impression upon the Spanish national life. "The ease," he says, "with which the romances disappeared and the profound oblivion that descended upon them indicate that they were not really popular, that they had not penetrated into the consciousness of the people, although for some time they dazzled their imaginations with brilliant phantasmagorias." To all of this many critics will hardly subscribe; the vogue of the "Amadís" and its congeners was certainly too enormous and too continuous to permit us to consider it in the light of a passing fad.

Waiving the question of the date of the "Amadís," we must concede that the oldest romance of chivalry indigenous to Spain is the fourteenth century "Caballero Cifar," the sources of which an American student, Mr. Wagner, has industriously investigated. To this story historians have at last begun to give an all too tardy justice, and now Menéndez y Pelayo points out—as he has done also in his tercentenary "Discurso" on the "Don Quixote"—that the figure of the Ribaldo, the picaroon squire of the Knight Cifar, is a prototype of the immortal Sancho Panza. It is hard to escape the conclusion, after reading the earlier story, that Cervantes, for whom Sancho Panza was really an afterthought, since Don Quixote issued forth on his first sally unattended by any squire, read and imitated the "Caballero Cifar."

After the novel of chivalrous adventure, the author considers at great length the categories of the sentimental, the historical, and the pastoral novel. To his treatment of these subjects unstinted praise should be given; it is characterized by great fulness, accuracy, and lucidity, even when he deals with the artificial, perplexing, and deadly dull romances of shepherds and shepherdesses. We shall await with eagerness the appearance of the continuation of the "Orígenes de la Novela."

The German Universities and University Study. By Friedrich Paulsen, Professor of Philosophy in the University of Berlin. Authorized Translation by Frank Thilly, Professor of Psychology in Princeton University, and William W. Elwang. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $3 net.

This is Professor Paulsen's well-known work, translated in 1895 by Prof. E. D. Perry, enlarged to more than four times its size, and fresh in the clear, forcible English of Professor Thilly. Curiously enough, there is no mention of the earlier German or English volumes, though Paulsen gives Professor Perry ample recognition for his study of the American university field. The work is an absorbing presentation of the theme, and by its rather frequent allusion to American institutions, throws not a little sidelight on the progress of the higher education here. There is an introductory chapter on the general character of the German university and another on its historical development from the Middle Ages to the present time; there is a discussion of its present organization and place in public life, and a study of the university teacher, university instruction, and that *Lehrfreiheit* which, to quote Paulsen, made Stanley Hall, ten years ago, exclaim: "The German university is to-day the freest spot on earth"; there is an investigation of the student and of student life, with special reference to *Lernfreiheit*, or elective privileges; and there is a review of the different faculties of theology, law, medicine, and philosophy, the unity of which, as formerly, the author contends, centres about the school of philosophy. There is, too, a bibliography, a list of German universities, and an extensive, but incomplete, index. The work, however, is something more, and for the educator in general: Professor Paulsen chats with us, and even gives us lengthy dissertations on methods in lecturing and teaching—the

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form of the lecture, the question of text-books, the nature of the student—thus making the work, without doubt, all that Professor Thilly claims for it—"the most satisfactory exposition of university problems and the most helpful practical guide in solving them that has been published in recent years."

Admitting the dangers of the "big leap" from school to university (which, by the way, Prof. Nicholas Murray Butler pointed out in his introduction to the first edition in English), Paulsen thinks that Germans "might approximate the English-American system with intermediate and transition steps between the school and independent scientific research," and suggests it as a good place to put in the year of military service, with its broadening, disciplinary value. With Andrew D. White he attributes to the German universities much of the fame that Germany enjoys in America, notes with satisfaction the number of American scholars who "studied and won their doctorates in Germany," and thinks that Americans have had greater success than either the English or the French in unifying scientific labor and instruction. In accord with Kant, Paulsen believes that science exists in order to be of service to mankind, and that science is therefore the concern of the people as well as of scholars. Thus he comes naturally to the small but promising beginning in university extension work, after the example of the English and American colleges, which has been made in Berlin, Leipzig, and Munich. In co-education and its modified acceptance in German academic circles, Professor Paulsen sees only the recognition of a just demand by women for greater opportunities, but—and this will be of special interest to those who know Paulsen's recent private views on the attitude of the German universities to *das ewige Weib*—he does not find in the rising woman, with her physical and consequent mental limitations, either any serious danger to man or any promise of additional strength to advanced science.

Our author glories in the intellectual freedom of the German university, commending the ultimate decision in the famous case of Dr. Arons, the *privat-dozent* of physics, who was arraigned by the Government for affiliation with the Social Democrats, and defended by the University of Berlin; rejoices that American universities, like the French, have caught the German watchword of "original research"; and, with Lamprecht, in his recent "Americana," believes that some of the higher institutions here are making great strides in freeing themselves from all trammels. He draws the line, however, at various schemes which are growing in favor in the Western world, and which seem to him fads. He objects in particular to the plan for a seminary of "university pedagogics"; the only seminary for the training of teachers, he declares, is the "master's studio," at the feet of a modern Gamaliel. Of the international exchange of professors now going on between Germany and America, and proposed for other countries, Paulsen says nothing, although it was long discussed before the German Emperor gave it his support. He does recommend, however, the sending of German students to America for a term or two, to round out their training. In theological matters Professor Paulsen seems unusually fair, especially in treating the question of additional Roman Catholic faculties of theology to give adequate exposition to their side; he does not hesitate, however, to say that Catholicism needs a revival of a "freer, deeper, more personal religious life," and that "if Catholicism expects to live, if it does not wish to cast its lot exclusively with the decaying group of nations, it will be compelled once again to submit to the Germanic spirit," to heed the warning of changes in its own ranks in America and elsewhere.

Taking up the matter of both professors and students, the distinguished author has much to observe of special interest to Americans. He has a good word for the system in Germany by which a professor is excused from duty in old age rather than neglected or even retired on a pension; he reprobates sharply the increase in titles and decorations among professors, and condemns the professor who is occasionally tempted to shine in the limelight of the daily press. He advocates the erection of dormitories in large cities and the encouraging of students to leave their undesirable private quarters; and he favors the still further introduction of healthy out-door sports among the students, not merely for their own sake, but in the hope that through them the German public may be reached. Paulsen also advises the abolition of *Stundung*, or delayed payments of fees, which burden students and often require police and court aid to collect. He finds in fraternities some of the opportunities for students to rub up against all kinds of people, as in the general society of English and American colleges; and he severely condemns duelling and, for the most part, the *Mensur*, though pointing out one or two good influences resulting from it. Altogether the professor holds several briefs for the German university student. He does not believe there is much wanton shirking of lectures; cites the known fact that there is no rowdyism in a class-room (would that we Americans could say as much!); and notes that if any student offends, as by even regularly coming late to a lecture, "the students themselves do police duty." Social and economic changes, however, especially in great cities, are doing away with many of the good old customs of the past, and with the steady increase in attendance, professors and students are drawing further and further apart.

Aus Meinem Leben: Erinnerungen von Rudolf Haym. Aus dem Nachlass herausgegeben. Mit zwei Bildnissen. Berlin: Gaertners Buchhandlung.

Four years have passed since these autobiographical sketches of Haym were published as a private memoir, and to-day, with their re-issue in popular form, we are still better able to judge the striking personality of this German scholar. Unfortunately, the work is incomplete: it begins with Haym's birth at Grünberg, Silesia, October 5, 1821, extends through more than forty eventful years of social, political, and literary revolution, but fails to record the fruitful period in which the great critic wrote his "Romantische Schule" and "Life of Herder." It fails necessarily, also, to show us how Haym, following his long series of contests with the German Government, maintained his individuality while settling down in a Government university and adapting himself to his later environment. For his last decades, Haym was the most honored figure at the great University of Halle; thousands of foreigners studied under him and his relations with Americans were particularly agreeable; yet because, on his vacation trip to St. Anton in the Tyrol, in 1901, his light died out suddenly before he had finished his task, there is scarcely any allusion to his foreign friends and disciples, where we should have expected a mass of reminiscence and personal anecdote. That which has flowed from the pen of the old man, however, bears on every page the stamp of the painstaking, conscientious diary-keeper; his *Selbstbiographie* has that rarest of all autobiographical virtues, absolute honesty and openness of mind and heart. Those who knew Haym personally will recall him as manly and straightforward in the extreme; and in the volume before us he lays bare his innermost feeling concerning not only others but himself. Indeed, some of the spiciest passages give the riper opinion of his own early literary, bread-winning, and love performances, and there are not a few well-directed, though kindly, thrusts at his forerunners and contemporaries. Evidently the manuscript has been little changed.

Haym was preëminently a literary critic, and his literary and academic career first engages our attention. Disturbed as it was, it had, after all, considerable unity of purpose and result. Sweating over algebra, as a non-mathematical *Junge*, he became early acquainted with Herder's works, and from his first entry into Halle, in 1839, he had a distinct longing for the fields of literature and of higher education. He thought of theology, and on the advice of Gesenius, made several vain attempts to prepare for the Church; he worked on encyclopædias, writing philosophical articles, and learning English; he received his Ph.D. in 1841, and passed his State examination, doing well in ancient languages, but flunking on the map of Rome—though he had marked up the wall and furniture of his room with geographical names. He tried his hand at *gymnasium* teaching at Cologne, but failed on account of near-sightedness (having run a knife into one eye when he was a boy), his Silesian dialect, and his inability to control the pupils. In 1850 he entered Halle University as a *privat-dozent*, and finally, in 1860, established himself there as professor to succeed Pratz. During these years his association with eminent men had a marked effect on his career. His first visit to Gesenius brought him the reproving advice to come next time at a more seasonable hour; he was taken under the wing of Niemeyer in the trying days of his *Fuchsthum* at the university; he visited Turnvater Jahn on his first journey to Weimar and the Wartburg, and met Eduard Erdmann, who later opposed his entrance to the Halle faculty; he attacked none other than Lachmann, and won his friendship thereby; and he came into close touch with Kuno Fischer, the elder Droysen, Gustav Freytag, Mommsen, and the brothers Humboldt. Erdmann's political objections to Haym were overruled by the Government,

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and Haym was appointed to Halle while Erdmann was still rector. Custom required Erdmann to welcome Haym officially, but he showed his spleen by an address in which he declared his difference with Haym on political issues, avowed ignorance of anything that Haym had as yet done in literature, and expressed the wish that, since he was appointed despite the faculty's will, he might soon write something of value.

Haym's own account of the political movements with which he was identified is full of interest. We find him in his 'teens at Halle partaking, as a radical *Theolog*, of the student unrest there; at Rudelsburg, on Pfingsten, 1840, we hear him shouting with the rest of the *Burschen* at the news of Frederick William III.'s death; a little later, with several students, he overpowers a trio of constables and releases a woman charged with notorious theft; he is called before the police on account of his close identification with the theological movement at Halle, is told that he is ahead of time in his views, and astounds the chief of police with the answer: "We are the times!" He tries to live at Halle, in 1845, and is opposed on political grounds; he writes a political comedy, becomes editor of the proceedings of the first Prussian Legislature, of which body he was also a member, is swayed by the news from Paris of the February Revolution and duped by Hansemann into going to Berlin to join the agitators there, and so on through the early years of his life.

The personal side of Haym must always have presented much that was attractive, though as a boy and youth he was timid and reticent to a degree that interfered with his progress—a weakness that prevented him later in all three parliaments, powerful as he was with his pen, from making a single speech or taking part in any debate. We find him a boy among boys, now drawn into a scheme to cheat the theatre with cancelled tickets, now evading the gymnasium on account of an unwillingness to flirt with the all-too fascinating daughter of the common drill-master, and then half-drowning in the swimming school through his repugnance to water and the swimming teacher's determination that he shall get all he can of it. He pictures himself as a youth welcomed to Halle Vereins by the romantic dreamers of that slower age, one of whom finds Haym's heart in a heavenly hour, by asking, *Hast du denn deine Ideale?* and we catch him failing to take a water-cure, because he tarries too long each day with the miller's daughter, and never reaches the old water-wheel, used for a shower-bath!

Nelson's Encyclopædia. Volumes I., II., and III. New York: Thomas Nelson & Sons. (To be complete in twelve volumes. Price $42.)

In the three volumes before us the editors and compilers have fairly well accomplished their purpose of furnishing a high class reference work for busy men. Since there is no pretence to literary merit the lack of it can scarcely be criticised. For those who seek a "family" encyclopædia in which to follow "courses of reading" during winter evenings, the present production will be inadequate. It cannot take the place of the German "Brockhaus" or "Meyers," the English "Britannica," or less extensive works such as "Chambers'" and the "New International." But, despite many grave faults, it is, in concise treatment of topics of general and current interest, perhaps the most useful compilation yet published. In method it follows to the extreme the idea of the "Konversations Lexikon"; that is, each distinct part of a large subject is treated as a separate article in its appropriate alphabetical order. In this respect the "Nelson" more nearly than any of the other large cyclopædias approaches the abridged French "Larousse."

In the maps and illustrations we note one of the most striking shortcomings in these volumes. The maps are, if anything, below the ordinary low level of American-made maps. Beside a few poor colored maps of the larger divisions there are numerous black and white line maps of cities, States, and nations, many of which are little more than undecipherable blotches. The illustrations by their character and profusion are clearly intended to popularize the volumes, but here, too, quality has been sacrificed to quantity. There are colored plates, execrable both in taste and workmanship, and poorly printed half-tone portraits of the grade one finds in daily newspapers. The "current interest" fetish is responsible for a series of page groups such as "Admirals of the United States Navy," who are not all admirals, and of "Famous Actors of America," including such modern celebrities as Sothern and Mrs. Fiske. The effect of many otherwise good full-page portraits, of which Burns and Aristotle are examples, is marred by printing on the back, which shows plainly on the face of the picture. The only acceptable illustrations are the simple line drawings of architectural works, machinery, and the like.

The bulk of the text was prepared in England with an avowed subordination of literary and classical subjects to those of "living interest." This English text is now publishing in England under the title of "Harmsworth's Encyclopædia;" to which British authors and scholars of the highest rank have largely contributed. The best of these contributions remain intact, and are among the most valuable parts of the work. For sale in this country, however, the encyclopædia has been extended and thoroughly "Americanized"; and this process has introduced many new articles of varying quality. The result has been some rather startling examples of disproportion; for instance, Benedict Arnold and John Brown are accorded more space, respectively, than Alfred the Great and John Bunyan. Length, however, is not a just criterion of value, and as a rule the long biographical articles, such as those mentioned and the articles on John, John Quincy, and Charles Francis Adams are exceptionally well done. The same praise cannot be accorded the shorter gazetteer articles and the minor biographies; many of the latter, particularly those of contemporary notables, are mere outlines, like those in "Who's Who." Some of these short outlines are singularly inadequate. There is no estimate of Gertrude Atherton's writings, but space is given to the statement that she "has passed much time in England and the Continent"; while Poultney Bigelow appears to be chiefly "known for his voyages in a canoe on European rivers."

Many slips appear, such as the use of "Boonesboro" and "Boonesborough" in the same article, and calling Beloit College a "Congregational" institution in the article on the city, and a "non-sectarian" institution in the article devoted to the college itself. Simple proof errors, however, seem to be unusually few. Some of the brief definitions are curious, to say the least; for example, "Bulbul, an Arabic word much used in Persian poetry, though there is some dispute as to the bird to which it applies." Of minor errors of fact there are many. Concord became the capital of New Hampshire in 1808, not in 1816; Arkansas, like the rest of the Louisiana Purchase, was for a time under Spanish sovereignty; Stephen F. Austin founded San Felipe de Austin (now San Felipe), a town on the Brazos River, in 1822, and not Austin, the present capital of Texas. It is of course incorrect to say that David R. Atchison actually "was President of the United States" even for a single day. The fact that there is both a Charleston and a Charlestown in West Virginia, probably accounts for the omission of the first, which, in addition to being the State capital, is by far the more important. Such errors, irritating as they are, can be so easily remedied in future editions, and are confined so generally to minor articles, that too much stress should not be laid upon them. Still their frequency, and the sacrifice of purely classical, antiquarian, and literary subjects, in order to make room for topics of contemporary and passing interest, form a serious objection to a work possessing many admirable features.

The Making of an Orator: With Examples from Great Masterpieces of Ancient and Modern Eloquence. By John O'Connor Power of the Middle Temple, Barrister-at-Law, and sometime M. P. for the County of Mayo. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.35 net.

This book is undoubtedly interesting and valuable; yet it is not entirely obvious who will most appreciate its interest and value. It is announced in the preface to be "intended for students, young or old, who have had no practice in public speaking, and for speakers who are not unwilling to consider suggestions made by another."

And undoubtedly most of its suggestions would be of great value to unpractised speakers, if such were able to carry them out in full confidence. But the truth of them, and still more their practicability, can hardly be appreciated, except by those who have already had practice, and even some measure of success in speaking. The author reduces oratory as far as possible to its elements—an audible voice, a clear arrangement of facts, historical illustration, logical argumentation, profound and sincere conviction. He urges again and again that to make one's self an orator every one of these essentials must be cultivated; and then prescribes that they are to be practised and developed in this order: first, clearness of speech only; secondly, delivery of speeches containing nothing but facts, gradually adding and superadding each of the elements. The difficulty

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here is that any speech to produce the effect which Mr. Power contemplates must contain all these elements from the very beginning, or it is no speech at all. He approves to a limited extent of committing to memory and delivering select extracts. But he is eager to hurry his novice to original composition, and dwells with great energy on the superior character of extempore speaking, urging the usual consideration that so only will freshness be secured. Yet it is a matter of common observation that most speeches which have no previous aid from a pen are anything but fresh; a rehash of the old thoughts and phrases which come crowding to a speaker's lips, pushing back the really fresh thoughts whose wonted residence is the tip of the pen. It is safe to say that an oration, devised by Mr. Power's method, so far from having a truly spontaneous character would be artificial in the extreme. There are countless useful anecdotes and warnings interspersed to forestall such a disastrous result. But their point will be scarcely perceptible to the young mechanic, constructing his orations by a series of precepts to be applied externally. They will sound very familiar and trite to the speaker, who has already learned his art by plunging in headlong, as one learns to swim, or, better, as one learns to ride, where the riding-master has given half a dozen directions to be observed all at once, and where a single failure will land one on the ground.

The masterpieces of oratory are in general well selected. Those from Demosthenes and Cicero are in translation, and as far as the Cicero goes in a poor translation, artificial and over-ornamented. There is nothing from any great French preacher or other speaker, where a really good translation would be much easier to find. The English extracts, from Burke, Gladstone, Bright, and others are good; and a liberal compliment to American oratory is followed by Mr. Lincoln's Gettysburg address; while an after-dinner speech of Mr. Choate's is given as a model of lighter speaking.

Such models, as indeed the author himself admits, are likely to do more for the young orator's training than the elaborate precepts; the truth of which will generally be thoroughly admitted—by those who have no need of them.

Drama and Music.

If A. W. Pinero is not absolutely the first of living English dramatists he certainly is one of the most expert makers of plays. His skill in the art of technical construction was shown even in his earliest farces, and has been growing ever since, until his mechanism now is often not unworthy of comparison with that of Ibsen himself. There is a fine example of it in the curiously named "His House in Order," which was performed here for the first time in the Empire Theatre, Monday evening. It is scarcely likely that the piece will be as successful in New York as it was in London, not only because the subject is unsympathetic and the types of character essentially British, but because the American performers are not successful in bringing out the full effect of Mr. Pinero's dialogue, which is superior in general quality to that of most of his contemporaries. This shortcoming is all the more unfortunate, as for two acts the interest depends mainly upon the explanatory and satirical qualities of the conversation. As usual the peculiar ability of the author is shown in the manufacture of one or two leading situations to which all minor considerations of probability are subordinated. This comparative indifference to the nature of the premises necessary to the establishment of a climax was exhibited in "The Second Mrs. Tanqueray," "The Notorious Mrs. Ebbsmith" and "The Gay Lord Quex," to say nothing of that extraordinary blunder, "A Wife Without a Smile." In the present instance he wished to lead up to a climax in which a young woman, the second wife of a widower, driven to desperation by the perpetual tyranny of the family of her husband's first wife, is suddenly, by chance, placed in the possession of evidence clearly proving that her predecessor, instead of being a paragon of all the virtues, had betrayed her husband shamefully, even to the extent of imposing upon him, as his own heir, her lover's child. Clearly this is a situation providing a rare opportunity for an actress of genuine emotional power, but the combination of circumstances by which it is secured will not bear close investigation. All the conditions and most of the personages involved are abnormal. Some of the incidents are almost grotesque, as when the husband and the rest insist that the second wife shall put on mourning to attend a ceremony in honor of the first. But Mr. Pinero rarely hesitates, apparently, at any expedient which, in the end, may serve his dramatic purpose. In his latest play, having endowed the down-trodden wife, with means for the fullest revenge, he makes her resign them voluntarily, and subject herself to new humiliations, in a spirit of Christian resignation inspired by a diplomat, who is her ally. As one of Ibsen's women remarks, "People do not do such things." Nevertheless "His House in Order" is, technically, a wonderfully well-made play, and very interesting after the action has once got into full swing. The characters, especially the narrow, bigoted, conceited, pharisaical Ridgeley family, are admirably drawn, but here the veracious effect of them was marred by the exaggeration of the performers. The dialogue, without being particularly brilliant, has a conciseness and point which give it a positive literary value, and would probably be more effective in print than on the stage, where it is uttered with very little sense of its varied shades of meaning. But elocution is rapidly becoming a lost art among actors. "His House in Order" as a life study, is an advance upon Mr. Pinero's so-called problem plays, though of less interest, perhaps, to the general public. If it adds nothing to his reputation it will detract nothing from it.

The great Theatre Alla Scala, at Milan, is an example of a theatre that is administered not to make money, but as a centre of art, for the education as well as the pleasure of the people. It is in part owned by the city, and received from it, until 1901, a considerable subvention; in that year it was decided by a referendum that this subvention be suppressed; and for a time the theatre was helped out by a syndicate of boxholders. A commission was appointed last March to propose measures for adoption after the termination of the present contract with the boxholders. In their report recently made, they propose that in a new contract for nine years the city should, by remission of taxes, facilitation of a renewed system of illumination, assumption of the expense of certain changes in the building, etc., enable the theatre to satisfy the demands of a modern public. They support these proposals on the ground that, as the theatre is in part the property of the city, and is an institution of public benefit, and not an instrument for making money, it is the duty of the community, as in the case of a hospital or a museum, to maintain and increase its effectiveness. Among the changes proposed is the lowering of the orchestra, after the manner of Bayreuth and other theatres, and the conversion of the fifth tier of boxes into a sort of superior gallery, for people of moderate means, who cannot afford a box, and do not like the promiscuity of "the gods." By this means, and by maintaining the eight performances (out of the fifty that constitute a season) at reduced prices, they hope to obviate the objection to the opera as the rich man's pleasure, and increase the opportunities for culture of the general public.

The chief event of the Mozart Festival at Salzburg was a performance of the ninth symphony of Bruckner. It was to have been conducted by Dr. Muck, but he could not come, and Richard Strauss took his place. Bruckner died before his works were appreciated. Now they are being played with success everywhere—except in America. The boycott placed in our concert halls on the symphonies of Bruckner is as astonishing as the neglect of Rubinstein's works, which, with their abundance of warm melody, are always sure of a warm welcome.

The Germans at last have an up-to-date book on their deepest musical thinker. It is by Professor Wolfrum of Heidelberg, and is published in Berlin by Bard, Marquardt & Co. Spitta's Bach biography, in two volumes, is a monumental work of erudition and analysis, but it is for reference only, while Wolfrum's is a book to read; it contains also the results of the latest researches. The author shows that Bach, like Wagner, Liszt, and the other great masters, had to spend his life "amid persistent annoyance, envy, and persecution."

The *New Music Review* for September has an interesting article by Lawrence Gilman entitled "A Neglected Page of Wagner." It is concerned with the Paris version of "Tannhäuser," concerning which Mr. Gilman says: "Throughout the seventy-odd pages which now comprise the bacchanale and the first scene proper, there is scarcely a measure that has not undergone some transformation, harmonic, rhythmic, or orchestral; and there is a liberal proportion of absolutely new matter." The musical journalists have not paid sufficient attention to these wonderful changes, with their suggestions of "Tristan," "Meistersinger," and "Parsifal," which so greatly heighten the beauty and the intensity of the music.

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Block, Louis James. Many Moods and Many Minds. John Lane.
Briggs, Charles Augustus. Critical and Exegetical Commentary on the Book of Psalms. Vol. I. Scribners.
Cawein, Madison. Nature-Notes and Impressions. E. P. Dutton & Co.
Champlin, John Denison. Young Folks' Cyclopædia of Persons and Places. 5th ed. Holt & Co. $2.50.
Flint, Robert. Socialism. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Hopkins, William John. The Airship Dragonfly. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.25 net.
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Taylor, Joseph S. Art of Class Management and Discipline. A. S. Barnes & Co.
Travels in the Far West. Edited by Reuben Gold Thwaites. The Far West, by Edmund Flagg; Letters and Sketches, by Father Pierre Jean de Smet. Cleveland: Arthur H. Clark Co.
Watson, H. B. Marriott. A Midsummer Day's Dream. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Wildenbruch's (von) Das Edle Blut. Edited by Ashley K. Hardy. Holt & Co. 35 cents.
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